

No.6819.

Education Commission Reports, England.

1. The Assistant Commissioners appointed to inquire into the State of Popular Education in England. 1861. Vol. II. pp.634.

T. P. 6t

2. etc. 1861. Vol. III. pp.592.

1. 186t

-----000-----

CONTENTS.—VOL. II.

	Page
INSTRUCTIONS TO THE ASSISTANT COMMISSIONERS	7
THE REV. JAMES FRASER, M.A. :—	
Report on the State of Popular Education in Specimen Agricultural Districts ; in the Poor Law Unions of Sherborne, Dorchester, Cerne, Beaminster, Axminster, Chard, Yeovil, Hereford, Dore, Ross, Leominster, Bromyard, Ledbury, and Upton-on-Severn, in the Counties of Dorset, Devon, Somerset, Hereford, and Worcester	23
THE REV. THOMAS HEDLEY, M.A. :—	
Report on the State of Popular Education in Specimen Agricultural Districts in the Poor Law Unions of Lincoln, Gainsborough, Thorne, Doncaster, Newark, Thetford, Downham, Thingoe, Bury, Mildenhall, and Ely ; in the Counties of Lincoln, York, Nottingham, Suffolk, Norfolk, and Cambridge	143
J. S. WINDER, Esq. :—	
Report on the State of Popular Education in the Manufacturing Districts of Rochdale and Bradford ; in the Counties of Lancashire and Yorkshire	175
GEORGE COODE, Esq. :—	
Report on the State of Popular Education in the Manufacturing Districts of Dudley, Wolstanton, Newcastle-under-Lyne, and Stoke-upon-Trent ; in the Counties of Warwick and Stafford	243
A. F. FOSTER, Esq. :—	
Report on the State of Popular Education in the Mining Districts of Durham, Auckland, Weardale, Penrith, and Wigton, in the Counties of Durham and Cumberland	317
JOHN JENKINS, Esq. :—	
Report on the State of Popular Education in the Mining Districts of Neath and Merthyr, in South Wales ; and the Agricultural Districts in the County of Merioneth, in North Wales	435

INSTRUCTIONS

TO

THE ASSISTANT COMMISSIONERS.

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE ASSISTANT COMMISSIONERS.

Education Commission,
17, Great Queen Street, Westminster,

Oct. 7, 1858.

SIR,

THE Commissioners appointed by Her Majesty to inquire into the state of Popular Education in England, having appointed you to be an Assistant Commissioner in that inquiry, direct me to recommend the following instructions to your attentive consideration:—

The duties assigned to the Commissioners are, to inquire into the present state of popular education in England, and to consider and report what measures, if any, are required for the extension of sound and cheap elementary instruction to all classes of the people. It has been determined that it would not be advisable to attempt to discharge these functions by an exhaustive survey of the whole of England. They have therefore selected, as specimens of the country at large, ten districts, two metropolitan, two agricultural, two manufacturing, two mining, and two maritime, one of which has been allotted to each Assistant Commissioner. The Commissioners wish the Assistant Commissioners to render each other every assistance in their power, by correspondence, by interviews, or otherwise, as their convenience and experience may suggest.

You will bear in mind throughout your investigations that your duty is confined to the collection of facts. The Commissioners as such adopt at present no theory whatever. They wish you to dismiss from your minds any conclusions which you personally may have derived from the public discussion which of late years this subject has undergone. The value of your investigations would be entirely destroyed if they were influenced by any controversial bias, ecclesiastical, political, or economical. You will aim simply at the investigation of the questions of fact into which you are directed to inquire, and you will report the result to the Commissioners, with the utmost fulness and accuracy, and without the slightest regard to its bearing, real or supposed, upon any of the questions relating to education, which at present occupy public attention.

The subjects to which you will direct your attention fall into two principal divisions,—

I. Statistics.

II. The condition, methods, and results of Education.

I. *Statistical Inquiries.*—Forms will be furnished by the Commissioners to the Assistant Commissioners, by which much explanation on this head may be avoided; but it appears

desirable to indicate briefly the general character of the investigations to be made.

You will issue Circular L. to all places of education within your district, without any exception whatever. Circular M. is only intended for public, and Circular N. for private schools adapted for popular education and cheap elementary instruction. By "popular education" the Commissioners understand the education of the families of day labourers, mechanics, and the poorer class of farmers and shopkeepers. By elementary instruction, they understand instruction in which reading, writing, and arithmetic for boys, with the addition of plain work for girls, form the staple. You must use your own discretion in deciding what schools are comprehended under these terms. They are intended to include the lower, but not the higher class of what are known as commercial schools. They are also intended to include such endowed schools as are devoted wholly or in part to popular education; but as to those which are only partly devoted to it, the return should be confined to that part of the school which is so employed. The inquiry in all its branches extends equally to the education of males and of females.

The schools in which "popular education" (in this sense of the words) is given fall into two principal classes:—1. Public schools. 2. Private schools. Public schools are either endowed schools or those in which the schoolmaster is the appointee of a society, committee, or other public body, or of one or more private persons, who maintain the school as a public benefit. Private schools are those which are kept by the master or mistress for his or her own profit.

Public Schools.—The Commissioners hope to be able to obtain from educational societies, and from other sources, a considerable amount of information respecting most of the public schools in the country, but they wish you to include them in your inquiries, both in order that the information elsewhere obtained may be checked and completed, and because many public schools exist which are not connected with the great educational societies, but are supported by private persons who take an interest in education.

Private Schools.—It was stated at the last census that nearly two-thirds of the schools of England were private schools. No means of ascertaining their present number or condition are available, except the method of actual inspection. It will therefore form one of the most important duties of the Assistant Commissioners to obtain the fullest information in their power upon this subject. In respect to private schools generally, and especially to those commonly called dames' schools, there will be many cases in which it would be very desirable that the Assistant Commissioners or their clerks should personally superintend the distribution and filling-up of the forms with which they will be supplied.

Sunday Schools.—Sunday schools will form a special branch of your inquiry. In addition to the information obtained by

returns made to Circular P., you will inquire how far the instruction given in them is confined to religious, and how far it embraces secular teaching. You will ascertain to what extent they are connected with religious denominations, or whether they are usually independent of them. You will inquire how far they are attended by mere children, and how far they serve to keep up the education already acquired in day schools.

Evening Schools.—Evening schools will form a very important branch of your inquiry. In addition to the information obtained respecting them by Circular O, you will direct special attention to their efficiency and popularity with the poorer classes, in order to obtain the means of judging how far they supply a secondary education to persons who have already attended school, and how far they are merely designed to enable those who wish to do so to supply the defects of an early education which from any cause has been neglected. You should ascertain what subjects are usually taught, what is their comparative popularity, how far they are taught by paid, and how far by voluntary teachers, what peculiarities of teaching or of arrangement they may involve, and generally what is the relation in which they stand to the other parts of the existing system of education, and what means may be adopted for their extension and improvement.

Factory Schools.—These are schools which give certificates enabling children to be employed in factories and printworks. You will pay particular attention to their condition and efficiency, and you will endeavour to ascertain whether in the instruction which they give they comply substantially or nominally with the terms of the Factory Acts. If you should find any marked difference in this respect you will investigate its causes. You will inquire whether children destined to factory employment are often left uneducated until they attain the age of eight years, because at that age they *must* go to school, and whether there are any means by which this can be remedied.

You will compare the operation of the educational clauses in the Factory Act (7 Vict. c. 15, ss. 30, 31, 38, 39,) with that of the analogous clauses in the Printworks Act (8 & 9 Vict. c. 29, ss. 23, 24, 25). The principal difference between these provisions is that by the Factory Act children's labour is restricted to three alternate days in the week, and their attendance at school on the other days for five hours a day (Saturday excepted) is made compulsory. Under the Printworks Act the compulsory attendance of children at school extends to thirty days at least, either together or separately, between January 1st and June 30th, and to thirty more days between July 1st and December 31st in each year. The children must attend one hundred and fifty hours in each half year, but no attendance above five hours on any one day is to be reckoned as part of the one hundred and fifty hours.

You must bear in mind the fact that you have no power whatever to compel persons to answer your inquiries, and you must be

most careful in all cases to assure those with whom you may communicate, that the Commissioners will scrupulously respect all private interests, their object being to state general results, and not to expose private deficiencies.

This caution will be particularly applicable to the case of inquiries into private schools.

II. *Condition, Methods, and Results of Education.*

The inquiries which you will have to make may be classified under the following heads:—

1. The supply and demand of education.
2. The mode of education.
3. The subject-matter of education.
4. The results of education.

1. *The Supply and Demand of Education.*—You will be supplied with a statement (calculated from the census of 1851) of the estimated number of children between the ages of 3 and 15, living in your district. You will find out the number of schools, whether public or private, or whether day schools or evening schools, existing in each parish, the number of scholars in attendance, the average period of their attendance, and the amount of accommodation which the schools afford. This will enable you to determine, approximately, how many children there are in your district for whom no means of education are provided, and to form an opinion as to the age at which boys and girls respectively usually leave school. You cannot bestow too much labour in ascertaining this cardinal point with accuracy, and in grounding your conclusions on sound, clear, and tangible evidence. It forms the basis of all the questions which relate to the will and power of parents to send their children to school and to keep them there.

Those questions are as follows, and they can only be answered by detailed inquiry amongst persons of intelligence of either sex conversant with the locality.

Are the parents, whose children are not under education, unwilling to send them to or to keep them at school, or are they unable, or both?

If they are unwilling, from what source does that unwillingness arise?

What education is within their reach in respect of time? in respect of situation? in respect of money?

Do they neglect it on the ground that it is not adapted to their wants, and if so, are they right or wrong in that opinion, and what is the proof that they are right or wrong?

Do they neglect it on the ground of the incompetence of the teacher?

Do they neglect it on the ground of difference in religious belief from the managers of the schools within their reach?

Do they neglect it on the ground that they cannot afford to forego wages earned by their children.

In further illustration of the grounds of unwillingness, you will inform yourself as to the age at which the labour of children becomes a source of profit in your district, and you will inquire whether the practice of making it a condition of the parent's hiring that he shall send his children to the same master prevails amongst the employers of labour. You will inquire whether it often happens that girls are kept at home to take care of the house, and whether the habits of business are such that the mothers of families are extensively employed in daily labour, so that the elder children's education is neglected in order that they may take the place of their mothers. You will also attempt to ascertain which parts or what description of education the parents value the most, as directly improving the practical capacity or prospects of their children.

In order to test the extent of unwillingness, you will, if opportunity offers, examine the working of any schemes for giving prizes or certificates for long attendance at school which may be in operation in your district, and you will observe how far they affect the disposition of parents to keep their children at school. As to the nature of such schemes the Commissioners direct your attention to the following sources of information:—*Reports of Mr. Norris, Minutes of Council, 1852-3, p. 215, and subsequent years; Circular of September, 1855, Minutes for 1852-3, p. 18; and Essays at Educational Conference of 1857, pp. 183 and 205.*

If you meet with cases in which parents display an increased or increasing anxiety to obtain education for their children, you will try to ascertain whether that feeling is connected with the character of the school, whether it is stronger when the school is better, and *vice versa*.

You will also ascertain whether the attendance is more numerous at schools in which industrial training is included in the course of instruction than at those in which it is not, and what is the amount and nature of the industrial training. In relation to this subject, it is advisable that you should ascertain from the inspector of workhouse schools in your district which of such schools afford the best specimens of this annexation, especially as respects spade husbandry; and that having visited such workhouse schools, you should report, first, on the general effects of this division of the day between school and labour, mentally, morally, and physically; and secondly, how far a similar system, generally adopted, would improve the schools of the children of the independent labourers.

You will find it important to inquire whether the average period of the attendance of children is longer, and whether the number of children is larger, at good schools than at bad ones; and you will also, as opportunity may offer, pay attention to the working of what is called the half-time system of education. The general nature of the statutory provisions relating to it in respect to factories and printworks has been already stated. Attempts are now in progress in various parts of the country to introduce the half-time principle into other branches of industry,

and especially into agricultural pursuits. The children pass half, or some other portion of their time, sometimes alternate half-days, sometimes alternate days, sometimes alternate weeks, in labour, and the remainder in education; and it is asserted that the education is as good as under the whole time system, and that the parents are willing to allow children under these terms to stay much longer at school than they otherwise would; you should see how far these assertions are sound. This branch of your inquiry is of vital importance, and should be conducted with your greatest care and attention which you can bestow upon it.

It will also be of the very highest importance to ascertain how social and economical changes influence the demand for education on the part of the parents. If large works, involving a demand for intelligent labour, have been established in the neighbourhood, has that circumstance impressed upon the parents the value of education and increased the attendance at school? If there is a great demand for children's labour, does the attendance at school fall off? if work is scanty, does it increase? or is it, on the other hand, the case that when wages are high and the parents' circumstances easy the children are kept at school, and that when they are low they are removed?

In connexion with the demand for education, it is also desirable to inquire whether the poor show a jealousy of or a preference for any particular system; whether public or private schools are the most popular; whether, *cæteris paribus*, a school under Government or other inspection, or in connexion with an educational society, is, *as such*, more or less popular than others not so circumstanced, or whether it is a matter of indifference to parents how schools are managed, so long as they afford an education which suits them.

Particular attention should be paid on this head to the comparative popularity of free education and education for which payments are made, and to the causes of the state of feelings which you may ascertain to exist on the subject. It will also be of importance to inquire whether parents are deterred from sending their children to school by dislike of the particular form of religious instruction enforced or given there. Is there a reluctance amongst dissenting parents to send their children to church schools, and *vice versa*?

Your attention should also be directed to the case of the children of persons receiving out-door relief. Those persons are, by the very supposition, unable to earn physical necessaries. They cannot therefore pay out of their own incomes even the school pence. You will ascertain in every case whether the children are at school, whether the guardians pay the expense, and whether they use their influence over the parents to enforce the education of the children.

In all these inquiries you will remember the importance of taking the evidence of the parents of the school children, as well as that of the patrons and managers of the schools.

If the non-attendance of children at school arises from the

inability of their parents to send them there, you will inquire into the cause of that inability. Does it arise from poverty which prevents the parents from paying school fees, or from providing their children with decent clothing, or from the want of school accommodation? If the latter cause is assigned, you should test the truth of the assertion by inquiring whether the parents have attempted to obtain admission into schools for their children; whether they have in any instances paid for part of their education, or for the education of part of their family only, or for that of the whole of them during a short period, and whether they have availed themselves of any ragged schools which may be within their reach.

You will attempt to ascertain whether the supply of education has been duly proportioned to the demand for it, or whether new schools have been built in rich neighbourhoods, whilst the provision made for education has been stationary in poor ones.

The Commissioners are fully aware of the extreme difficulty of many of these inquiries. You will do your best to obtain trustworthy evidence in regard to them. Should you find it impossible to do so, you will frankly report that result to the Commissioners.

2. *The Mode of Education.*—This part of the subject may be considered under the following heads of inquiry:—

1. Schools.
2. Schoolmasters.
3. School buildings, apparatus, and organization.

1. *Schools.*—With respect to schools, the most important questions are those which relate to their management and their comparative efficiency.

The Management of Schools.—The management of schools consists of the two elements of government and finance. With respect to the government of schools, the most important subject on which the Commissioners wish for information is the working of systems of central aid and inspection, or of central inspection alone. The most important of these is that which is under the management of the Committee of Privy Council. The principles of that system are that private efforts to establish schools in which secular is combined with religious instruction shall receive aid from Government, irrespectively of religious creed, but on condition of inspection. Schools are also in some cases inspected although no grant has been made to them. The terms upon which the grant is apportioned and upon which schools are inspected are specified in the Consolidated Minutes of the Committee of Council, with a copy of which you have been supplied. You have also been supplied with the requisite documents respecting the other systems of central aid and inspection, or of inspection alone, now in operation.

You will inquire into the effects produced by the existence of these various and in some respects conflicting systems; you will

attempt to ascertain whether competition between them stimulates their exertions, or whether it causes a waste of power and weakens the influence of the teachers over their pupils.

Some objections which do not apply to other bodies have been made both to the principle and to the administration of the Government grant. Some persons entertain a conscientious scruple against accepting Government assistance to or admitting Government interference with education in any form whatever. You will endeavour to ascertain to what extent this scruple operates.

It is asserted that the prospect of receiving Government aid operates as a check upon voluntary contributions for purposes of education. You will accordingly attempt to obtain trustworthy information as to the amount of voluntary subscriptions for educational purposes made throughout your district, and as to the ratio of its increase or diminution during a period covering that in which the system of Government help has been developed; and you will also ascertain whether in particular instances the prospect of obtaining Government assistance has repressed or stimulated private liberality. It is also asserted that the terms upon which the Government grant is made are such as to interfere with the independent management of the school. You will inquire into the grounds of this opinion, and you will also collect evidence as to the nature of the cases (if any) in which the committee of management have given up their own views in order to obtain grants by complying with the views of the Committee of Council. It is also asserted that the competition of schools assisted by Government is found to be so strong as to drive out of the field all private enterprise in the same direction. You will therefore direct your attention to the growth or decline of private adventure schools, and more particularly to that of unassisted public schools in places where the schools assisted by Government are particularly numerous, and you will endeavour to ascertain what was or is the character and degree of efficiency of such uninspected schools in comparison with the schools inspected.

Objection has been taken to some particulars respecting the administration of the Government grant, as well as to its principle. These are, that the terms upon which the grant is made are such, that in poor districts the promoters of schools are unable to entitle themselves to it by providing suitable buildings, and by providing the salary necessary to secure the services of a certificated or registered teacher. It is also said, that the number of days of attendance, exacted as a condition of sharing in the capitation grant, is so high, that many deserving schools are excluded from the benefit of it. It is asserted in connexion with this matter, that the capitation grant is intended to meet the case of schools in poor districts, and that the terms on which it is made (*see Consolidated Minutes, pp. 14, 15,*) are such, that its purpose is in practice defeated with respect to the very schools which need it most. The grant is restricted to schools

of which the teachers are registered or certificated, and it is said that, inasmuch as the power of teaching is distinct from that of learning, this restriction often excludes good teachers and their schools from assistance. You will inquire whether these assertions are warranted by the facts in the district to which you are sent, and how far they are so warranted.

With respect to public schools not under Government inspection, you will inquire what is the nature of the managing body and how it is formed.

Finance.—With respect to the financial condition of the schools, you will direct your attention to the operation of the system of school fees. You will inquire whether it is true that the payment of fees is popular with parents? Whether the scale of fees can safely, for the interests of the school, be raised in proportion to the character of the education given? Whether schools are usually in debt, and from what sources deficiencies are made up? With respect to schools totally or partially supported by voluntary contributions, you will ascertain (if circumstances admit of it, in a tabular form) what proportion of the subscriptions is derived from the owners of land or tithes, what from occupiers, what from ministers of religion, what from householders, and what is the rateable value of the parish lands.

The comparative Efficiency of Schools.—You will visit a sufficient number of public schools which are and which are not under Government inspection, of charity schools, and also of private schools, to supply the Commissioners with the grounds of an opinion as to their comparative efficiency. You will particularly direct your attention to charity schools; and in respect to private schools in particular, you will ascertain what proportion of them are *bonâ fide* places of instruction and what proportion are substantially no more than nurseries, intended only or principally for the purpose of keeping the children who attend them out of mischief during school hours.

You will endeavour to ascertain how far, in addition to the ordinary day schools, industrial schools and evening schools for adults have been introduced into your district; and in connexion with this part of this subject you will ascertain whether any and what efforts have been made towards adapting the instruction given in ordinary day schools to the special character of the population of the district.

If ragged schools have been established in your district, you will inquire whether they retain the distinctive features with which, and are calculated to effect the object for which, they were originally instituted, which were the provision of education for the most degraded part of the youthful population. If you find that the country schools in your districts differ materially from the town schools either in their general character or in their financial condition, you will draw distinct attention to the fact.

2. *Schoolmasters.*—You will inquire into the general condition of the schoolmasters in your district, whether their schools are public or private. With respect to public schools you should endeavour to ascertain what has been the result of the system of education for masters adopted at the normal schools, and particularly whether the schoolmasters who have been the subjects of such an education devote more time to the training of pupil teachers than is consistent with the interests of their scholars, or whether they neglect the former for the latter; and whether they are disinclined to bestow the proper degree of attention on the elementary branches of education, viz., reading, writing, and arithmetic. In this view you will direct your attention not only to the more promising pupils, but also to the proficiency or deficiency of the lower classes and less promising pupils in their schools, and the level of instruction in respect of the less ambitious parts of education, particularly reading. In connexion with this part of your inquiry, it is desirable that you should compare schools in which there are and are not apprenticed pupil teachers, noting particularly, in the absence of such teachers, how and by whom the instruction of the classes, which cannot from time to time receive the immediate attention of the master or mistress, is conducted, and with what result. You will also inquire whether such teachers show a tendency to be dissatisfied with their position, on account of its not opening to them a career of advancement, and to leave it in order to embrace other professions. It is likewise material to inquire into the justice of the allegation that the prospects opened by the Committee of Council to certificated teachers throw difficulties in the way of private charitable persons who, having established schools, are desirous of providing them with competent masters.

You will inquire into the character of the masters of endowed schools, and you will attempt to ascertain the influence of endowments on their efficiency and on the purity of their appointment.

You will inquire whether there appears to be any ground for the fear that the number of teachers holding certificates may become excessive, whether they act as masters of schools at too early an age, and whether it would be expedient to require candidates for a principal mastership to have served any and what time as assistants.

You will direct particular attention to the supply of, and to the demand for schoolmistresses, especially in situations where mixed and united schools are common, and where in consequence their services are particularly needed. Should the supply fall short of the demand you will attempt to ascertain the reason of that fact.

With respect to the masters of private schools you will inquire what has been their education, and in particular whether they hold certificates from training colleges, or from other bodies which grant certificates. You will also inquire what other occupations in life they followed before they became schoolmasters; and whether they pursue at present any other occupation concurrently with that of teaching.

3. *School Buildings, &c.*—You will inquire into the general condition of school buildings, and into the internal arrangements of the schools in respect to desks and apparatus of various kinds, and particularly in regard to the arrangement of classes. You will ascertain to what extent the arrangements approved of by the Committee of Council prevail, and what other systems are the most important, the best marked, and the most usually adopted.

III. *The Subject Matter of Education.*—The Commissioners have reason to believe that the subject-matter of education is (with certain exceptions) substantially the same in most of the public schools which aim at providing what can be described as popular education: reading, writing, arithmetic, and (except in secular schools) religious instruction form the staple of all of them. It would of course be neither possible nor desirable that you should inspect the whole of the public and private schools in your district, but it would be perfectly possible to examine a sufficient number of schools, of various religious denominations, whether church or dissenting, or of a purely secular character, inspected or uninspected, public or private, to collect materials for sound conclusions as to the broad general question of the comparative accuracy and intelligence with which the elementary branches of knowledge are taught, and as to the objects to which teachers of different classes principally direct their attention. You will ascertain what books are in most general use for reading lessons, and what subjects are selected for oral lessons by the teachers, and whether they are mainly chosen with a view to practical utility, or to any other and what object. You should also inquire how far the cultivation of taste is made an object of education, whether singing, music, and drawing are taught to any extent. You should observe the manner in which the teaching of the school is conducted, and you should ascertain by inquiry whether the usual course of teaching is in its nature systematic or desultory, and whether it is solid or showy. You may form a good opinion on this matter by attending to the reading books in use, by ascertaining whether the lectures or object lessons, which are common in most public schools, are intelligible to the children, or whether they are mere displays of proficiency on the part of the master, or for other reasons unsuitable or less useful than they might be. You should bear in mind that there are two principal types of education; one which aims at giving a certain intellectual training by which the mind is supposed to be qualified to turn to any special object which it may at a later period wish to study; and the other, which aims at the direct imparting of knowledge. The Commissioners do not wish you to speculate on the comparative merits of these systems; but they wish to ascertain as a fact how far each type prevails in the popular education at present in existence in England. If reading, writing, and arithmetic were taught with strictness and accuracy in a given school, and if questions were devised to exercise th

reasoning powers in relation to these subjects, the school would approach to the first type; if the principal subject of teaching was to give information upon various topics, the school would approach to the second.

There is one most important part of this subject on which the Commissioners are anxious to obtain precise information. One great difficulty in the way of all large schemes of education, has always been the difficulty of dealing with the different opinions of various religious denominations. The Commissioners wish you to ascertain, exclusively as a question of fact, what are in practice the difference between the course of religious instruction afforded by different religious denominations; what (if any) are the recognized formularies adopted by them, and how far those formularies are taught in such a manner that the pupils have such perception of their meaning as children of an early age and average intelligence may be expected to acquire.

In connexion with this subject, you will inquire whether or not it is frequently the case that parents of one religious persuasion send their children to schools in connexion with other persuasions, and, if so, upon what terms as to special provision for their religious instruction or attendance on religious worship, and whether in practice such terms are enforced.

IV. *Results.*—The most important results of education are unquestionably of a moral nature, but the difficulty of reaching tangible and definite results upon this subject is so great, and your opportunities of collecting information bearing upon it will be so limited, that the Commissioners propose to pursue such inquiries through other channels.

With regard to the intellectual results of education, you should inquire of the employers of labour as to the relative value of educated and uneducated workmen and workwomen as such. You should attempt to collect trustworthy evidence as to the general level of intellectual power amongst the class in question, always bearing in mind the fact that talent and force of understanding, though powerfully affected by the acquisition of knowledge, differ from it fundamentally. You will endeavour to find out whether men and women who have received a good school education make use of it afterwards, and if so, how, or whether they forget what they have learnt. You will inquire whether those who have received a good education themselves value it more than others for their children. In this point of view, inquiry into evening schools for adults will form a most important feature in your investigations. The statistics of reading rooms, lectures, &c. might also be usefully combined with the sources of information enumerated above. The character of the books read or the information given there is as important a matter of investigation as the fact that books are read and that information is given.

You should also endeavour to ascertain how far the extension of popular education has favoured the spread of taste; whether it produces an extended demand for music, singing, drawing, and other accomplishments of the same kind.

Personal acquaintance with persons of the labouring classes, educated and not educated, is of course the best source of information, but for this you will not have time or much opportunity. As a substitute you must rely on the evidence of persons who themselves have had this acquaintance. The employers of labourers, the clergy of different denominations, the governors and chaplains of gaols, inspectors of police and other officers of justice, and the shopkeepers whose customers are labourers, must all be able to give much information. Experience will teach you what questions to ask, and when you find an intelligent witness it will be well to take down his answers, read them over to him, receive his corrections and explanations, and then obtain his signature.

You must remember that questions relating to the education of women must be answered in part by persons of their own sex.

You will put yourselves in communication with the other Assistant Commissioners engaged in this inquiry, and with Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, of whom you will find that several, inspecting schools of different denominations, traverse the district assigned to you. It will be your duty to bring together the separate experience which each of these officers can supply. You will also communicate with the officers of the different societies, general and local, of which education is the object.

In conclusion, the Commissioners wish you to understand that these instructions are intended to guide, and not to limit your inquiries. They will be glad to learn any facts, so long as they are definite and authentic, which may tend to throw light upon the subject which Her Majesty has directed them to investigate.

By order of the Commissioners,

F. STEPHEN,
Secretary.

REPORT

OF

THE REV. JAMES FRASER, M.A.

SYNOPSIS OF CONTENTS OF THE REV. JAMES
FRASER'S REPORT.

	Page
A. Nature of the Inquiry - - - - -	23
B. Area of the Inquiry - - - - -	23
C. Character of the District - - - - -	25
I. Progress of Education since 1851 - - - - -	29
II. Attendance of Children - - - - -	32
III. Distribution of Schools :—	
a. Private Schools - - - - -	35
b. Denominationalism of Schools - - - - -	38
c. Endowed Schools - - - - -	40
d. Schools viewed in relation to Teaching-power - - - - -	43
e. " School Age of Children - - - - -	44
f. Sunday Schools - - - - -	48
g. Evening Schools - - - - -	51
IV. Condition of Education, as affected by—	
a. Supply and demand - - - - -	54
b. Religious Considerations - - - - -	60
c. Industrial Training - - - - -	61
d. Half-time Systems - - - - -	63
e. Prize Schemes - - - - -	65
f. School Fees - - - - -	67
g. Poverty of Parents - - - - -	68
h. Want of local Liberality - - - - -	69
i. Special Circumstances of different Parishes - - - - -	71
V. Financial State of Schools - - - - -	72
Sources of Voluntary Contributions - - - - -	73
VI. Mode of Education :—	
a. Government of Schools - - - - -	73
b. Comparative Efficiency of Schools - - - - -	86
c. Status of Teachers - - - - -	95
d. School Buildings and Fittings - - - - -	97
VII. Subject Matter of Education - - - - -	101
VIII. Results of Education :—	
a. Moral and Social - - - - -	105
b. Intellectual - - - - -	108
c. Suggestions for development of Night Schools - - - - -	111
IX. Summary of Results of this Inquiry - - - - -	115
X. Suggestions - - - - -	118
XI. Conclusion - - - - -	123
Appendices :—I. On State of Education in Union of Dore - - - - -	126
II. Prize Schemes - - - - -	129
III. Table showing the Sources of Voluntary Contributions - - - - -	132
IV. Mode of Education; Government and Inspection of Schools - - - - -	138

REPORT of ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER the Rev. JAMES FRASER, M.A., Chancellor of Salisbury Cathedral, Rector of West Cholderton, Wilts, Chaplain to the Bishop of Salisbury, and Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, on the STATE of POPULAR EDUCATION in SPECIMEN AGRICULTURAL DISTRICTS in the POOR LAW UNIONS of SHERBORNE, DORCHESTER, CERNE, BEAMINSTER, AXMINSTER, CHARD, YEovil, HEREFORD, ROSS, LEOMINSTER, BROMYARD, LEDBURY, and UPTON-ON-SEVERN in the Counties of DORSET, DEVON, SOMERSET, HEREFORD, and WORCESTER.

MY LORD DUKE AND GENTLEMEN, Cholderton, May 17, 1859.

HAVING terminated the statistical portion of the inquiry entrusted to me, I have the honour to lay before you the conclusions at which I have arrived on the general State of Education in the districts I have traversed, which were selected as illustrating more or less completely the conditions under which the work of elementary education has to be carried on in a locality purely or mainly agricultural.

My own previous practical acquaintance with the subject had lain entirely for a period of eleven years in a district of this kind, partly as a manager, partly as a diocesan inspector, of rural schools; and it was only this branch of the inquiry that I should have felt myself competent to undertake.

I endeavoured to bear in mind throughout my investigation that my duty, in accordance with the instructions received from you, was confined simply to the collection of facts. I dismissed, as far as possible, from my mind all preconceived notions, whether prepossessions or prejudices. I am now directed to report the result to you, and I must try to do so, "with the utmost fulness and accuracy, and without the slightest regard to its bearing, real or supposed, upon any of the questions relating to education which at present occupy public attention."

I should premise, that throughout my inquiry I considered myself as strictly limited to the district assigned to me, and as having no right to travel beyond its bounds, (as I was frequently invited to do), for the purpose of ascertaining and reporting upon the special or exceptional circumstances of a particular locality. We are always apt to fancy, where difficulties meet us in the prosecution of any work, that our circumstances are special or exceptional; but, as far as I could gather from the letters of my correspondents, there was nothing in any case offered to my examination that really constituted an exception or a speciality; nothing of which I did not find abundant examples in the territory that lay within my proper range.

This territory comprised 14 poor law unions, situated in the counties of Dorset, Devon, Somerset, Hereford, and Worcester,

Nature of the inquiry.

Inquiry strictly limited to the district assigned.

Extent of the district.

SYNOPSIS OF CONTENTS OF THE REV. JAMES
FRASER'S REPORT.

	Page
A. Nature of the Inquiry - - - - -	23
B. Area of the Inquiry - - - - -	23
C. Character of the District - - - - -	25
I. Progress of Education since 1851 - - - - -	29
II. Attendance of Children - - - - -	32
III. Distribution of Schools :—	
a. Private Schools - - - - -	35
b. Denominationalism of Schools - - - - -	38
c. Endowed Schools - - - - -	40
d. Schools viewed in relation to Teaching-power - - - - -	43
e. " " School Age of Children - - - - -	44
f. Sunday Schools - - - - -	48
g. Evening Schools - - - - -	51
IV. Condition of Education, as affected by—	
a. Supply and demand - - - - -	54
b. Religious Considerations - - - - -	60
c. Industrial Training - - - - -	61
d. Half-time Systems - - - - -	63
e. Prize Schemes - - - - -	65
f. School Fees - - - - -	67
g. Poverty of Parents - - - - -	68
h. Want of local Liberality - - - - -	69
i. Special Circumstances of different Parishes - - - - -	71
V. Financial State of Schools - - - - -	72
Sources of Voluntary Contributions - - - - -	73
VI. Mode of Education :—	
a. Government of Schools - - - - -	78
b. Comparative Efficiency of Schools - - - - -	86
c. Status of Teachers - - - - -	95
d. School Buildings and Fittings - - - - -	97
VII. Subject Matter of Education - - - - -	101
VIII. Results of Education :—	
a. Moral and Social - - - - -	105
b. Intellectual - - - - -	108
c. Suggestions for development of Night Schools - - - - -	111
IX. Summary of Results of this Inquiry - - - - -	115
X. Suggestions - - - - -	118
XI. Conclusion - - - - -	123
Appendices :—I. On State of Education in Union of Dore - - - - -	126
II. Prize Schemes - - - - -	129
III. Table showing the Sources of Voluntary Contributions - - - - -	132
IV. Mode of Education; Government and Inspection of Schools - - - - -	138

REPORT of ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER the Rev. JAMES FRASER, M.A., Chancellor of Salisbury Cathedral, Rector of West Cholderton, Wilts, Chaplain to the Bishop of Salisbury, and Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, on the STATE of POPULAR EDUCATION in SPECIMEN AGRICULTURAL DISTRICTS in the POOR LAW UNIONS of SHERBORNE, DORCHESTER, CERNS, BEAMINSTER, AXMINSTER, CHARD, YEovil, HEREFORD, ROSS, LEOMINSTER, BROMYARD, LEDBURY, and UPTON-ON-SEVERN in the Counties of Dorset, Devon, Somerset, Hereford, and Worcester.

MY LORD DUKE AND GENTLEMEN, Cholderton, May 17, 1859.

HAVING terminated the statistical portion of the inquiry entrusted to me, I have the honour to lay before you the conclusions at which I have arrived on the general State of Education in the districts I have traversed, which were selected as illustrating more or less completely the conditions under which the work of elementary education has to be carried on in a locality purely or mainly agricultural.

My own previous practical acquaintance with the subject had lain entirely for a period of eleven years in a district of this kind, partly as a manager, partly as a diocesan inspector, of rural schools; and it was only this branch of the inquiry that I should have felt myself competent to undertake.

I endeavoured to bear in mind throughout my investigation that my duty, in accordance with the instructions received from you, was confined simply to the collection of facts. I dismissed, as far as possible, from my mind all preconceived notions, whether prepossessions or prejudices. I am now directed to report the result to you, and I must try to do so, "with the utmost fulness and accuracy, and without the slightest regard to its bearing, real or supposed, upon any of the questions relating to education which at present occupy public attention."

I should premise, that throughout my inquiry I considered myself as strictly limited to the district assigned to me, and as having no right to travel beyond its bounds, (as I was frequently invited to do), for the purpose of ascertaining and reporting upon the special or exceptional circumstances of a particular locality. We are always apt to fancy, where difficulties meet us in the prosecution of any work, that our circumstances are special or exceptional; but, as far as I could gather from the letters of my correspondents, there was nothing in any case offered to my examination that really constituted an exception or a speciality; nothing of which I did not find abundant examples in the territory that lay within my proper range.

This territory comprised 14 poor law unions, situated in the counties of Dorset, Devon, Somerset, Hereford, and Worcester,

Nature of the inquiry.

Inquiry strictly limited to the district assigned.

Extent of the district.

divided into 409 parishes (according to the divisions of the Poor Law), covering an area of 809,692 acres, or about 1,265 square miles, and containing at the census of 1851 a population of 235,456. The subjoined Table will show at a glance its extent and distribution.

TABLE I.

County.	Union.	Number of Parishes.	Area in Statute Acres.	Population in 1851.
Dorset	Sherborne - -	30	40,618	13,081
	Dorchester - -	39	69,976	17,210
	Cerne - - -	20	45,363	7,792
	Beaminster - -	26	53,764	14,270
Devon	Axminster - -	17	61,738	20,203
Somerset	Chard - - -	34	60,342	26,085
	Yeovil - - -	35	51,271	23,445
Hereford	Hereford and - -	47	68,109	23,768
	Dore - - -	29	74,917	9,298
	Ross - - -	30	55,568	15,502
	Leominster - -	25	65,168	14,890
	Bromyard - - -	33	61,659	11,683
	Ledbury - - -	22	48,783	13,139
Worcester	Upton-on-Severn -	22	53,016	18,070
Totals	14	409	809,692	235,456

Time occupied in inquiry.

Such a district naturally divided itself into two portions, a southern and a northern; the former comprising the unions situated in the counties of Dorset, Devon, and Somerset; the latter those in Hereford and Worcester. Each portion, the weather being exceedingly favourable for the purpose, required as nearly as possible ten weeks' inquiry, my operations commencing on the 18th October 1858, and terminating on the 24th March 1859. With your permission I had, in common with my colleagues, a month's holiday, though not an entire respite from work, at Christmas.

Division of labour.

Of the 409 parishes above enumerated, I personally visited 354; in 49 others (including all those in the union of Dore) less considerable in size, population, or the reported character of their schools, I left the collection of their statistics to my clerk; in the remaining six, containing only Sunday schools, I have relied for the accuracy of my returns upon the information furnished by the clergyman alone.

Exceptions to the completeness of the returns.

I feel tolerably confident of the completeness of these returns. As far as issuing them is concerned, I believe that not a single school has been omitted or overlooked, at least, not a single school that was in existence at the time of my visit to the parish; while, of those issued, there are only eight that I have failed to receive, viz., from two Church of England day schools at Frampton; from three Roman Catholic day schools at Hereford, Clebonger, and

population of the district, and have a very perceptible, and not a very favourable, influence upon its educational condition. In a large circle, of which the town of Yeovil is the centre, and which embraces portions of the Unions of Yeovil, Chard, Sherborne, and Cerne, the gloving trade is said (though I should think with some exaggeration)* to employ 20,000 females. In the Unions of Dorchester and Beaminster, girls and their mothers are extensively engaged in making, or (in the language of the country) "braiding" nets for the Newfoundland fishing trade; in Axminster Union, particularly in the towns of Colyton and Beer, lace-making is quite a staple occupation, and there are silk factories both in Axminster itself and in Lyme; and in the Union of Chard both hemp and flax are manufactured in various forms, such as twine, sailcloth, &c. These employments can all be carried on at a very early age. A girl begins to "glove," to "braid" nets, to make lace, at six or seven. In the town of Beer, there are regular lace schools, in which from 10 to 20 young children from six years old upwards, are taught the art of making the beautiful texture called Honiton lace under a mistress of the craft, at a charge of sixpence a week, bringing their own materials, and selling the lace, when made, on their own account. It is extraordinary that these wretched handicrafts should be so popular. Young girls prefer them infinitely to domestic service, chiefly from the love of independence, though the remuneration is strikingly inferior. At the price now given for lace, a woman must work hard to earn 5s. a week. A girl of 16 told me, that by working 10 hours a day, stooping over a machine all the time, she could sew 2 pair of gloves, earning 3d. a pair. The value of children's labour at net braiding is said to be from 2s. to 3s. a week. They are, each and all, employments very prejudicial to health, in consequence of the confinement, and, in the case of gloving and lace-making, the posture, they necessitate; while the obstacles they throw in the way of education, when the early age at which they are entered on is remembered, are obvious, and apparently irremediable. At Long Bredy, in Dorchester Union, the managers endeavoured to add the braiding of nets, as an industrial department, to the school, and fitted up a kind of anteroom for the purpose, intending to make it an employment for the boys in the afternoon; but the experiment did not succeed, and at the date of my visit had been discontinued.

Condition of such a district unfavourable to education.

Not that even where the agricultural character of a district is not interfered with by the intrusion of a manufacturing element, is the work of education carried on under much more favourable conditions. There are such successive demands for juvenile, almost for infantine labour, that anything like regularity of attendance or continuity of instruction is impossible. In Herefordshire there are no fewer than 7 annual harvests, in each of which children are largely employed,—1. bark peeling, 2. hay, 3. corn, 4. hops,

* I saw, however, an advertisement posted up in the villages round Yeovil of a single manufacturer, who said that he had work ready for 1,000 hands.

5. potatoes, 6. apples, 7. acorns. If we add to these birdscaring in autumn and spring, potato-setting, hoptying, and the incidental duties (not peculiar, however, to an agricultural district) of baby-nursing and errand-going, and make a fair allowance for sickness and weather, some estimate may be formed of the difficulties through which the education of the children of the rural poor has to force its way. The wonder is, not that so little is done, but that any thing at all can be achieved. And yet it is an undoubted fact, that there are parishes in which this accumulation of difficulties is not only fairly dealt with, but absolutely overcome: and where the education received, as well as offered, is as high and sound, not only as is possible under these circumstances, but as would be attainable under any circumstances. There are first-rate schools, which have to do their work under each and all of these conditions; indeed it is only in parishes with inferior schools that one hears much complaint of the difficulties. But this opens a large and important question about the comparative efficiency of schools, for which I shall find a more convenient place further on.

There are, indeed, two additional circumstances characterizing the Hereford district, which did not exist to anything like the same extent in that of Sherborne, and which materially aggravate the difficulty of maintaining efficient schools. I refer to the nature of the soil, as affecting the state of the footpaths and roads; and secondly, to the distribution of the cottages, in which the people live. In Herefordshire, a village, meaning by the term a street of houses clustered round the church, parsonage, and school, is quite an exceptional fact. Houses are dotted down by twos and threes over the whole area of the parishes. The schoolhouse often appears quite isolated from a human habitation; yet, upon inquiry, you find that it is in the most central position that could be obtained. And if it be true, as it undoubtedly is, that "as iron sharpeneth iron, so a man sharpeneth the countenance of his friend;" if the intellectual readiness of the townsman, as compared with the peasant, is mainly due to the daily contact of mind with mind, and with many different minds, this isolation of the Herefordshire child from his fellows must tell with large effect upon his capacity to receive instruction, and is probably the chief cause of that slowness of apprehension, that apparent incapacity to answer a plain question, and even of that drawling utterance, which are too striking characteristics of him to be overlooked by the most unobservant stranger.

Not that the mere distance of the children's homes from their school would present an insuperable barrier in the way of regular attendance, were the roads and approaches to the school fairly passable. But it is difficult to describe, or, unless you have travelled in them, to form an idea of, the state of the Herefordshire lanes, with their deep retentive red-clay soil, in a rainy season, indeed throughout an ordinary winter, which is the agricultural child's great school time. It is almost impossible that children under seven or eight years of age can make their way through them;

Special characteristics of the Herefordshire district.

1. Absence of villages.

2. State of roads.

and in all cases there must be more than the average amount of truth in the complaint of want of shoes, which is so often alleged as the reason of a child's absence from school.

Distribution of parishes another unfavourable condition.

One more fact, adverse to the efficiency of rural schools, remains to be mentioned, affecting, however, not so much the children as the managers. I allude to the size and population of the parishes. The following Table, exhibiting the population of all the parishes in my district, according to ecclesiastical distribution 386, tells its own tale:—

TABLE II.

Name of Union.	Number of Parishes containing a Population according to the Census of 1851, of											
	Less than 100.	Between 100 and 200.	Between 200 and 300.	Between 300 and 400.	Between 400 and 500.	Between 500 and 600.	Between 600 and 700.	Between 700 and 800.	Between 800 and 1,000.	Between 1,000 and 1,500.	Between 1,500 and 2,000.	Above 2,000.
Sherborne	5	9	2	5	3	1	1	-	-	1	-	1
Dorchester	6	10	4	7	3	1	-	-	3	2	1	1
Cerne	1	7	4	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Beaminster	6	4	2	3	1	3	1	1	1	1	1	2
Axminster	-	1	-	-	-	3	1	1	-	3	1	4
Chard	4	3	8	3	3	1	3	3	3	3	1	3
Yeovil	5	5	2	5	3	3	1	1	1	4	4	3
Hereford and Ross	4	6	4	3	4	1	5	1	4	4	1	2
Leominster	6	6	5	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Bromyard	6	8	10	10	10	3	3	3	3	3	1	1
Ledbury	1	6	2	1	2	1	3	1	1	3	1	1
Upton-on-Severn	3	0	2	5	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Ledbury	3	8	-	-	1	3	-	-	3	2	2	2
Upton-on-Severn	1	4	-	2	1	2	-	2	1	2	2	2
Totals	49	87	45	42	23	24	21	17	29	29	7	22

It thus appears, that of 386 parishes (including the towns of Sherborne, Dorchester, Beaminster, Axminster, Lyme, Chard, Ilminster, Crewkerne, Yeovil, Hereford, Ross, Leominster, Bromyard, Ledbury, Upton, and Great Malvern,) 136 or more than one third, have a population under 200; 223, or considerably more than half, under 400; 270, or upwards of two thirds, under 600. As the value of the property in a parish (though, unhappily, not always that of the benefice, is generally proportional to the population, the difficulty of raising funds for the adequate maintenance of a school, and of getting children enough together to form a school, where both property and population are so small, if parochial boundaries are to be adhered to, is at once apparent. The case has its remedy, as I shall hereafter suggest; a remedy, too, that has been tried in a few places with complete success; but it is one of rather delicate application, and interferes somewhat with the sentiment, of which some people are very jealous, of each parish with its own school under its own pastor.

The conditions under which the work is done must modify the estimate of the work.

All these concurrent difficulties must be borne in mind, and allowed for, in estimating either what is the amount of education possible under such conditions, or the credit due to that which is actually attained. The statement of them at the outset of this

Report was a necessary preliminary to the full and fair consideration of a subject which they so widely influence and largely modify.

The class of day schools, into the number, condition, and efficiency of which I was instructed to inquire, is that in which popular education and cheap elementary instruction is being given to the families of day labourers, mechanics, and the poorer class of farmers and shopkeepers. They are divided into public and private schools, meaning by the former term schools which are either endowed or maintained by one or more individuals, as a public benefit; by the latter, schools which are kept by the teachers for their own profit. There are two classes of schools above these, the middle and upper schools, with which I was not concerned, beyond being required to ascertain, by means of a very simple tabular form, the number of children of both sexes that they contained, &c. The following Table shows the result of this inquiry:—

The class of schools contemplated by the inquiry.

TABLE III.*

Day Schools existing in the Specimen Districts of Sherborne and Hereford, in the Winter, 1859-60.

Name of Union.	No. of Elementary Public Schools.	No. of Children in them.	No. of Elementary Private Schools.	No. of Children in them.	No. of Middle and Upper Schools.	No. of Children in them.	Total No. of Schools.	Total No. of Children in them.
Sherborne - -	29	1,672	20	393	8	397	57	2,563
Dorchester - -	36	2,184	28	436	10	271	74	2,891
Cerne - - -	14	840	12	290	3	73	33	1,213
Beaminster - -	30	1,395	32	620	3	33	65	2,023
Axminster - -	23	1,733	43	779	11	313	82	2,821
Chard - - -	35	2,396	54	913	15	312	107	3,571
Yeovil - - -	28	1,925	67	1,382	21	484	116	3,796
Hereford and -	45	2,685	26	451	21	513	92	3,653
Dore - - -	16	720	2	49	1	12	19	781
Ross - - -	30	1,593	14	295	6	131	50	1,979
Leominster - -	27	1,622	13	293	9	195	49	2,020
Bromyard - -	19	1,098	11	214	3	39	33	1,351
Ledbury - - -	34	1,797	14	180	5	193	53	2,070
Upton-on-Severn-	27	1,923	25	395	11	219	63	2,535
Totals - - -	492	23,549	361	6,363	130	3,019	493	32,971

This Table, and the comparisons and estimates deducible from it, will throw light upon many important educational questions.

I. THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION.

The present inquiry has probably been more complete, exhaustive, and exact in its character than that undertaken for the first time as an element of the Census of 1851. But still no better method of ascertaining the progress that education has made during the last eight years can be adopted, than to compare the results obtained now with those obtained then. Before doing so, however, in order to make the comparison fairly, it will be necessary to exhibit in a tabular form the amount of the popu-

Progress of education.

* This table includes three Roman Catholic schools, from which returns were refused. I ascertained that they were attended by about 110 children.

lation of the district, as ascertained in 1851, and as estimated in 1859.

TABLE IV.*

Name of Union.	Population, 1851.	Estimated Population, 1859.	Estimated Ratio of Increase in Eight Years.
Sherborne - - - -	13,681	13,512	2 per cent.
Dorchester - - - -	17,210	17,554	"
Cerne - - - - -	7,792	7,947	"
Beaminster - - - -	11,270	11,555	"
Axminster - - - -	20,503	20,912	3 per cent.
Chard - - - - -	26,085	28,171	8 per cent.
Yeovil - - - - -	28,436	30,721	"
Hereford and - - - -	25,768	27,056	5 per cent.
Dore - - - - -	8,208	8,332	2 per cent.
Leominster - - - -	15,502	16,277	"
Bromyard - - - - -	14,809	15,196	2 per cent.
Ledbury - - - - -	11,683	11,799	1 per cent.
Upton-on-Severn - - -	13,139	13,491	2 per cent.
Upton-on-Severn - - -	18,070	18,877	10 per cent.
Totals - - - - -	235,456	246,290	—

Estimated increase of population.

This Table shows an estimated increase of 10,744 in the population; and this, had education merely kept pace with the population, and the census-ratio of the children under instruction, to the whole number of persons, viz., 1 in every 8'36, were still the true education ratio of the district, should have carried with it an increase in the number of children at school of 1,285. But the result of the present inquiry, both as regards the number of schools and of children in course of education in them, is far more favourable than this. The following Tables sufficiently prove this:—

TABLE V.

Table showing result of Educational Census of 1851, in 14 Poor Law Unions.

Name of Union.	Number of Public Schools.	Number of Children in them.	Number of Private Schools.	Number of Children in them.	Total Number of Schools.	Total Number of Children in them.
Sherborne - - - -	22	1,125	32	462	54	1,587
Dorchester and Cerne - - -	44	2,589	56	652	100	3,241
Beaminster - - - -	24	1,286	25	523	49	1,809
Axminster - - - -	23	1,397	43	884	66	2,281
Chard - - - - -	26	1,880	39	750	65	2,630
Yeovil - - - - -	24	1,919	57	1,339	81	2,758
Hereford and Dore - - - -	42	2,551	50	1,060	92	3,567
Ross - - - - -	12	636	22	509	34	1,145
Leominster - - - -	19	1,171	20	384	39	1,555
Bromyard - - - - -	17	766	18	203	35	969
Ledbury - - - - -	22	1,461	13	186	35	1,647
Upton-on-Severn - - - -	20	1,565	22	369	42	1,934
Totals - - - - -	298	17,850	396	7,567	694	25,417

* The principles on which I have estimated the population in this Table are as follows:—I ascertained from the Census Returns of 1851 the average rate of annual increase of the five counties of Dorset, Devon, Somerset, Hereford, and Worcester, for the last fifty years, and also the rate of increase (which in each case but that of Worcester was considerably below the average) from 1811 to 1851. I took into account what I learnt, as I passed through each district, of the state of its population, whether increasing, stationary, or diminishing. Combining the two results, I arrived at the conclusions indicated in the Table. The Registrar General's formula for such computations was too hard a mathematical problem for me.

This Table, however, does not afford materials for direct comparison, at least not as regards the number of schools, with Table III., p. 29; partly because the object of the educational census being to ascertain the extent of education generally, and that of the present inquiry being to ascertain only the extent of elementary education, the class of middle schools was not kept distinct in the former, as I have kept it in the latter; but still more, because the word "school" is not used in the same sense in the two inquiries; in the census, denoting a distinct establishment, which might consist of several independent departments, all nevertheless considered as only forming one "school;" while, in the forms issued by me, the word "school" signified a distinct group of scholars under their own head master or mistress, and not a separate building.

No direct comparison attempted with the Census of 1851 as regards number of schools.

It is true, that groups of schools under one roof, or in contiguous buildings, but forming one establishment, are of rare occurrence in an agricultural district; still, they are to be met with in the country towns, as at Yeovil, Chard, Axminster, Leominster, &c., and even in some of the larger villages, in sufficient number to affect the total; and, therefore, though a comparison of Tables III. and V. will show that there has been a very considerable increase, the following Table will do so more thoroughly and completely.

TABLE VI.

Table showing comparative View of the State of Education in 1851 and 1859 in 14 Poor Law Unions.

Name of Union.	1851.			1859.		
	Population.	No. of Children at School.	Per-centage on Population.	Estimated Population.	No. of Children at School.	Per-centage on Population.
Sherborne - - -	13,081	1,587	12.1	13,342	2,262	16.9
Dorchester - - -	17,210	3,541	14.1	{ 17,554	2,891	16.4
Cerne - - -	7,792			{ 7,947	1,218	15.3
Braminster - - -	14,270	1,809	12.6	14,555	2,023	13.8
Axminster - - -	20,503	2,281	11.2	20,912	2,821	13.4
Chard - - -	26,085	2,630	10.1	28,171	3,571	12.6
Yeovil - - -	28,440	2,758	9.6	30,721	3,796	12.3
Hereford and - - -	{ 25,768	3,567	10.1	{ 27,050	4,433	12.1
Dore - - -	{ 9,208			{ 9,382		
Ross - - -	15,502	1,145	7.3	16,277	1,970	12.1
Leominster - - -	14,809	1,535	10.4	15,196	2,020	13.2
Bronyard - - -	11,683	969	8.2	11,799	1,351	11.4
Ledbury - - -	13,139	1,647	12.5	13,401	2,080	15.4
Upton-on-Severn - - -	18,070	1,894	10.7	19,877	2,535	12.8
Totals - - -	235,456	25,423	10.7	246,200	32,971	13.3

It thus appears that, whereas in 1851, out of a population of 235,456, 25,423, or 1 in 9.26 (below the general average of the kingdom), were under education, in 1859, out of an estimated population of 246,200, 32,971, or 1 in every 7.4 persons, are in the day schools. It also appears that while the per-centage of children at school in relation to the whole population of the district in 1851 was 10.7, in 1859 it had risen to 13.3, an improvement of 2.6 per cent. In some of the unions the progress is remarkable;

Proportions of children under instruction in 1851 and 1859. 1. With reference to the whole population.

e. g., Ross, Ledbury, Sherborne; in the last named, indeed, the ratio of the children under instruction to the whole population has reached the point so long desired, so little hoped for, of 1 to 6.

2. With reference to those in the educational age.

Again, from the returns which have passed through my hands, I learn that of the 32,971 children under instruction, 950 are under 3, and 810 are above 15 years of age, giving a total of 1,760 children who are beyond the commonly received limits of school age, and leaving a remainder of 31,211, who are within them. In a return which I have received from the Registrar General, it is estimated that there are in my district 66,195 persons between the ages of 3 and 15; so that, dividing this number by 31,211, I find that the proportion of persons under instruction to the whole number between these ages, is as 1 to 2.12. At the time of the census the average throughout the kingdom (and in other points this district fell below the average) was as 1 to 2.4. Here again is a slight but palpable improvement. All these facts form a body of proof sufficient to show that the work of education has not been stationary; that the growth of schools has even anticipated the growth of the population.

II. ATTENDANCE OF SCHOLARS IN THE SCHOOLS.

Attendance of children at school.

But the number of children's names on the register of a school, after all, affords a very imperfect test of the extent to which education is really leavening and elevating the generation to which it is nominally applied. We must ascertain what proportion of these children, ostensibly at school, are in any practical sense using the school. We must compare the average attendance of scholars with the list of names on the registers. In the Census of 1851, it was not the *average* attendance of scholars that was taken, but the attendance on a particular day (31st March). It was, no doubt, felt that any figures professing to exhibit the average attendance must contain in them a large element of uncertainty, owing to the very imperfect immethodical way in which the registers of most public schools were then, and still are, kept; and to the fact that, in the private or dames' schools the figures given must be mere guess-work, as in nine cases out of ten no register is kept at all. Yet the plan adopted of taking the attendance on a certain day must be nearly equally fallacious. For, putting aside considerations of weather (of which all school managers know the influence), it is quite certain that the visit of an enumerator would operate like the visit of an inspector, and that more or less pressure would be exerted to present, for that day at least, a respectable array. The circumstances of the two cases, therefore, being so different as not to admit of comparison, I can only set before your Grace and the Commissioners the figures that I have actually obtained from the returns of the Elementary Schools within my district, begging you to remember that there is a precariousness about them arising from the cause that I have named. The Middle Schools of Table III. are not noticed here, as no return of average attendance was either required or received from them.

TABLE VII.

Name of Union.	No. of Children belonging to Public Schools.	Average Attendance.	No. of Children belonging to Private Schools.	Average Attendance.	Total belonging.	Total Attendance.	Percentage of Attendance on belonging.
Sherborne	1,052	1,250	391	278	1,955	1,488	76.1
Dorchester and Cerno	3,124	2,468	430	487	3,760	2,855	75.8
Beaminster	1,365	920	629	693	1,994	1,423	71.3
Axminster	1,733	1,218	770	583	2,503	1,811	72.1
Chard	2,319	1,652	913	680	3,239	2,332	72.1
Yeovil	1,925	1,386	1,282	1,086	3,397	2,472	72.7
Hereford and Doro	3,165	2,439	600	389	3,995	2,878	72.0
Ross	1,593	1,173	246	193	1,839	1,366	74.2
Lominster	1,622	1,111	263	110	1,825	1,251	68.5
Bromyard	1,098	735	214	161	1,312	896	68.2
Leobury	1,537	1,238	180	136	1,977	1,374	69.4
Upton	1,929	1,411	596	512	2,925	1,723	59.1
Totals	23,589	16,981	6,363	4,908	29,952	21,889	73.2

It must be confessed, that the results exhibited in this Table diminish considerably any satisfaction we may have derived from the results exhibited in Table VI. The difficulty of securing regular attendance is one of the greatest discouragements in the path of promoters of schools. Into the *causes* of the difficulty I will attempt to inquire afterwards; at present, I am concerned simply with the *fact*. The evil has not even yet been stated in its full proportions. The Committee of Council on Education have fixed upon 176 days, as the minimum number to constitute such attendance as shall entitle the managers of a school to claim Capitation Grant in respect of any child. Considering that the school is generally open 44 weeks, of 5 days or 5½ days each, in the course of the year, I hardly think that any one can consider the standard fixed upon as too high. Indeed, when I observe that it is reached, in very fair proportion to the number of children, in several schools, even in Herefordshire, I am not disposed to echo the complaint with which I became so familiar in that county, that it is an impracticable standard and must be reduced. Still it is a sad and most discouraging fact, that it is a standard so seldom attained; and that in spite of the strongest possible inducement—I may almost say the bribery—that is offered.*

The following Table shows the result of the inquiry I was directed to make on this subject, in the case of 132 public schools; all, in fact, in the district, whose registers were in a state to allow of the computation being made. I am afraid that the returns err on the side of excess in most schools which are not in the habit of claiming capitation money, and where the calculation had to be made for the occasion; and something, perhaps 5 or 6 per cent., will have to be deducted from the apparent result on this score.

* For once I will ask permission to introduce a fact not gathered in my special district; but for the entire correctness of which I can vouch, and which at least illustrates the possibilities, even of an agricultural parish. In my own school, in Wiltshire, the results of the year 1858, as ascertained from a register kept with remarkable precision, are as follows:—Average number on the books throughout the year, 54; average daily attendance, 44.5; number of children who attended school more than 176 days, 34. I should add that the school is open 54 days per week, and that though the population of the parish is only 183, many of the scholars, in fact 20, come from neighbouring villages. The school certainly has the advantage of having the population close round it; but it is liable to all the other disturbing influences of a rural school.

By the word "bribery" in the text, I mean that the inducement takes more or less directly the shape of a *pecuniary* motive or temptation.

But even taking the figures as they stand, they afford but little matter for gratulation.

TABLE VIII.

Name of Union.	No. of Schools by whom the Return is made.	No. of Children belonging to them.	Average Attendance.	No. of Children who attended 176 Days in last School Year.	Per-centage of Average Attendance.	Per-centage of Attendance of 176 Days.
Sherborne - -	11	911	688	337	75.5	36.9
Dorchester and Cerne - -	29	1,683	1,266	530	75.2	32.3
Beaminster - -	13	791	518	280	65.4	35.3
Axminster - -	13	1,035	758	491	73.2	46.7
Chard - -	13	871	640	427	73.4	49.0
Yeovil - -	7	961	648	291	67.4	30.2
Hereford and Dore - -	9	863	641	185	74.0	21.3
Ross - -	8	484	352	208	72.7	42.9
Leonminster - -	9	676	438	134	64.7	19.8
Bromyard - -	6	467	328	132	63.9	28.5
Ledbury - -	11	745	603	155	67.5	20.8
Upton-on-Severn - -	6	450	326	120	72.4	26.6
Totals - -	132	9,970	7,266	3,113	72.2	31.2

I cannot but suspect, from a survey of this Table, and remembering what I heard, in the shape of complaint, of irregularity of attendance in the localities themselves, that the per-centage of 176 days, as it appears in the Unions of Axminster, Chard, and Ross, is put too high, and that if we take 34 out of every 100 children in the Sherborne district, and 20 out of every 100 in the district of Hereford, as the number who ordinarily attend 176 days in the school year, we shall not be very wide of the true proportions. The lower ratio in Herefordshire is sufficiently accounted for, partly by the smaller number of schools that claim capitation money, and consequently have this additional motive to enforce regularity; but chiefly, by the distribution* of the population and the state of the roads in winter, to which I have already adverted, as two of the main educational difficulties in that county.†

* The population is sparse enough in Dorsetshire. But it is there calculated (in the census of 1851) at 186 persons, and 37 houses, to the square mile; while in Herefordshire, there are only 138 persons, and 29 houses, on the same extent of area. In Devon the distribution is 218 persons, and 38 houses; in Somerset, 271 persons, and 52 houses; in Worcester 375 persons, and 75 houses.

† The practical result that is supported by the greatest amount of evidence is that regularity of attendance depends mainly upon the efficiency of the school. Of course it will be modified by local circumstances of employment, weather, distance, &c.; but let the school be cheerful, the instruction practical, the teachers kind but firm, and the managers will find that the children will rather come to school than stay at home.

A neighbour of mine who has just remodelled his school, formerly a mere dame's school, placing it under a certificated mistress, who is much liked both by children and parents, tells me that, whereas before Christmas the average attendance barely amounted to 60, it has now reached 110, out of a population of barely 600, and that mothers make it almost a matter of complaint, though not of very discontented complaint, that they can hardly persuade their girls to stay at home, even when they want them for some domestic exigency. I am describing the state of feeling that now happily exists at Ludgershall, in Wiltshire, in a school that falls within my province as a diocesan inspector.

To secure regular attendance, the school must be made popular with the children; and it will be made popular by being put in that state which is most conducive to efficiency. Children, I am certain, prefer discipline to misrule, order to confusion, tidiness to dirt; and, if to these they add the pleasant consciousness of making progress, their lessons become a delight to them instead of a task, and you will find them crowding round the school door many minutes before it is opened. I was very much struck at Hardington Mandeville, where a new school has just been started under a very pleasing young mistress, to see the children rushing back from their houses, some of them with their dinner still in their mouths, to get to school again, and near their popular teacher, as soon as they could. Where the teacher once succeeds in touching this chord in children's hearts, all will go well with his school. Children in this class of life are very apt to take the matter of education into their own hands, and the parents much more frequently follow than guide their wishes.

III. THE DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOLS, according to different principles of classification, affords matter for many interesting reflections.

a. At the last census, it was stated that nearly two-thirds of the schools of England were private schools. This estimate of course included the middle and upper schools, which (with the exception of the endowed grammar schools) would be almost exclusively private. But, confining myself to elementary schools, it will appear by reference to Table III., p. 9, that of the 763 schools of this character in my district, 402 were public and 361 private schools. The proportion of children, however, educated by each class bears no relation to the number of schools in that class. Thus the 402 public schools are instructing 23,589 children (or an average of 58·6 in each), while the 361 private schools have only 6,363 children belonging to them (or an average of 17·6 each); so that whatever may be the proportion between the *schools*, the proportion of *children* in public schools to those educated in private is as 3·3 to 1. If the private schools were somewhat differently distributed, I should be sorry to see the proportion decline much below this mark. For, however much out of place they may sometimes be—as in Yeovil, where the children educated in them considerably outnumber those taught in the public schools; or in such large parishes as Stockland, Charminster, Stoke-under-Hambdon, in which there is positively no other resource for education at all;—however frequently they owe their existence to false and absurd feelings on the part of parents, who consider them as more fashionable places of education than what they still call (even where there is no endowment) the “charity school;” however often they are conducted by persons incompetent, intellectually, to teach the children entrusted to them; still it must be remembered that there is a very legitimate sphere for private, and even for dame’s, schools. For infant schools, even with a large circumjacent population, as in towns, are a great difficulty; and in widely-scattered rural parishes, where they are most wanted, they are an impossibility. The difficulty of the infant school lies in the rareness of the qualities that constitute a good infant teacher, and still more in the danger of children really of an infantine age—I mean between 2 and 5—unless they have an elder brother or sister to lead them, travelling even from one street to another in search of their school. I was struck particularly with the disadvantages under which an infant school labours in this respect at Dorchester. Indeed, I presume that the difficulty is generally felt; for in my whole district I can only reckon up 19 infant schools; and if I except the one at Sherborne, and another in St. Peter’s parish, Hereford, (which is a good sample of the old style,) there is not one that came up to my notion of efficiency. Here, then, is what I called the legitimate sphere of private schools. The dame picks up these children at their parents’ door; gathers them by the dozen or the half dozen in her humble kitchen; does not attempt mental development, or object lessons, or to give them ideas of form and colour,

Distribution of schools.

1. Proportion of public and private schools.

A legitimate sphere for private schools.

or of the abstract properties of numbers, but is content to teach them to say their catechism, to read in the Testament, to spell words of three or four syllables, and to repeat the multiplication table. I admit that much of this is taught mechanically; that there is very little awakening of intelligence; but I require it to be admitted also, that even a mechanical power of reading and spelling is not a bad foundation on which to build the subsequent intellectual superstructure. It is almost the universal opinion of parents that children are taught to read* quicker and better in the dames' schools than in the lower classes, (particularly if left to the charge of monitors,) of the public schools. I continually found in the private schools young children who had been removed from the public schools, because, as the dames informed me, "they learnt nothing" there.

Good points in private schools.

But this is not all that I have to say in favour of private schools. The great majority of them—the exceptions are quite rare—are kept by most respectable people in point of character; some of them by very admirable men and women. The children generally, in the parents' language, "get well looked after" by them. As far as order can be maintained, where there is no space for arrangement or manœuvring, and in a room where the business of the house is necessarily conducted as well as that of the school, the discipline is adequate to the occasion. The tone of the mistress towards the children is tender and parental—(the high tone of voice with which a little urchin's volunteered opinion is sometimes rebuked is not necessarily a token of a scold)—and the manners of the children themselves at the entrance of a stranger (the only time that I had for judging of them), generally free both from rude giggling and the exhibition of a troublesome curiosity, indicated minds alive to what is interesting and new, but restrained from prurience by the influence of good feeling and good taste. In the course of my tour I must have entered at least 200 private schools, and this feature of them has impressed itself very strongly on my memory. I have admitted that private schools are often out of place, and intrude into what is not their proper sphere. I wish that they would be content to be feeders to the public schools; to take charge of the younger children in the scattered hamlets, and small parishes, which cannot maintain a public school of their own, till they are old enough to travel, "suspensi hævo loculum tabulamque lacerto," to some superior school in the district or the neighbouring town.

Deficiency of dames' schools in Herefordshire.

Of the 361 private schools in the 14 Poor Law Unions through which I passed, only 105, or less than a third, are in the Hereford and Worcester portion of them; not because they have been superseded by public schools, but because in many large areas, particularly in the Union of Bromyard, there are no schools at all; and when I saw, as in Thornbury, Collington, and other places,

* I shall have a more proper opportunity of stating the probable causes of the superior reading which is placed to the credit (and not altogether wrongly) of the private schools when I come to speak of the "subject matter of education."

ten, or a dozen, or even twenty children with no means of education within their reach, it was often a matter of regretful reflection with me, that there was no good dame of the class that I had seen so frequently in Dorsetshire and Somersetshire, no one like the mistress of the school at Woodford, or again at Pipe-cum-Lyde in Herefordshire, to take them in hand.

In some of the towns that I visited there is certainly a greater preponderance than is at all desirable of private schools. In Yeovil, especially, there are no less than 21 private schools, educating 530 children, against 5 public schools (including the 2 workhouse schools), with 334 children. But, in almost all the cases, the cause lies on the surface, either in the feeling of a little social pride,—the private schools being filled with the children of the smaller tradesmen and shopkeepers,—or in the fact that the public schools in the town are very inadequate to the supply of its needs. I have thought the case sufficiently interesting to deserve the illustration of a Table, which (it should be remembered) does not include the middle or upper schools.

TABLE IX.*

Showing the Distribution of Elementary Schools in the following Towns.

Name of Town.	No. of Public Schools.	No. of Children in them.	No. of Private Schools.	No. of Children in them.	Remarks.
Dorchester -	8	572	14	251	Six of these private schools are in East Fordington, where there is no Girls' nor Infant School.
Arminster -	5	353	4	52	The private schools here chiefly contain the children of farmers and tradespeople.
Lyme - -	3	312	7	141	The private schools here are mostly of a rather superior class.
Charl - -	5	373	12	204	The public schools here are not thriving.
Yeovil - -	5	334	21	530	The public schools in this town, particularly the Girls' Schools, are not what or where they ought to be.
Hminster -	2	200	6	84	The public schools here are promising, but they are only just re-opened on an improved footing.
Crewkerne -	3	400	6	173	The public schools here, particularly the infants, are not very efficient.
Sherborne -	7	691	11	200	The public schools in this town, with one exception, are remarkably good.
Hereford -	14	1,373	19	358	There are some excellent public schools here, and some very indifferent ones. The private schools receive mostly a superior class of children.
Ross - -	8	553	5	65	In all cases but one the payments at the private schools in this town are quarterly.
Leominster -	6	444	7	120	The public schools here are in their infancy.
Bromyard -	4	293	3	108	The girls' school here is not in good order.
Leibury -	8	488	6	108	The private schools are chiefly filled with tradesmen's children.
Upton - -	3	248	3	57	The public schools are quite new. One of the private schools is kept by a dissenter.
Malvern -	6	538	4	114	One of these private schools, with 51 scholars, was superior; another, with 38, was outlying.
Totals -	87	7,451	128	2,643	Proportion of children in private schools to those in public, as 1 to 2'8.

* It should be said of this Table, that where a workhouse adjoins the town its schools are reckoned among the public schools.

It will be seen that the proportion of the children in public schools to those in private schools in these towns is below the average, being only 2·8 to 1, instead of 3·6; and a less healthy state of things, in an educational point of view, is the result.

Majority of private schools of recent date.

Capacity of their teachers.

The majority of these private schools—I speak now of the whole district—are of very mushroom growth, by far the larger proportion of the existing ones having sprung up since the Census of 1851; and the teachers of them have often no special fitness, or, at least, no fitness that is the fruit of preparation or training, for their work, but have taken up the occupation in default or after the failure of other trades. In a few instances they are very competent, and even to a certain extent accomplished; and such private schools as that of Mr. Pizey, of Great Malvern, may stand comparison with almost any public school of the same kind; but in one instance only, that of Mrs. Gibson, of East Fordington, did I meet with a teacher holding a special certificate (in this case from the Committee of Council on Education) of intellectual qualifications for the work. Most of them have picked up their own knowledge promiscuously; several combine the trade of school-keeping with another, *e.g.* that of dressmaking; in most the washing, and in nearly all the cooking, of the family, is done in the schoolroom and in school hours. There cannot be much *teaching* going on amid the distraction of such avocations (though perhaps the children may pick up a few practical notions of domestic economy, and learn how to boil a potato, to knead dough, or to starch a shirt); and many of the dames' schools are evidently nothing more than nurseries to keep the children, while the parents are at work, out of harm's way.

But it is impossible to treat the private schools as one class, or to combine them in a common description. They present as many features of discrepancy as the public schools, and as many degrees of merit. I have simply endeavoured to indicate the different points of view in which they may be regarded, and I have thrown together in my evidence illustrations enough to justify the point in which I have myself regarded them.

Religious denominationalism of schools.

b. Another important feature, perhaps, indeed, the paramount feature, when one recollects to what an infinitely greater extent our present public schools owe their existence to the direct action of religious bodies or religious persons than to the motives of a general philanthropy*—another important feature, therefore, in considering the distribution of schools, is their Denominationalism, or the religious opinions of those by whom they were founded and are maintained. The following Table exhibits a classification of the public day schools in my district upon this principle.

* At the Census of 1851 the schools supported by religious bodies are reckoned at 10,595 (not including 3,125 endowed schools which are connected with such bodies), while the schools maintained by a "general contemporaneous philanthropy," not acting through the medium of any religious body, were 1081.

TABLE X.

Name of Union.	Church of England Schools.		British Schools.		Nonconformist Schools.	
	No. of Schools.	No. of Children.	No. of Schools.	No. of Children.	No. of Schools.	No. of Children.
Sherborne - - -	28	1,523	1	129	—	—
Dorchester - - -	34	2,018	2	166	—	—
Cerne - - -	18	940	—	—	—	—
Beaminster - - -	29	1,335	—	—	1	30
Axminster - - -	25	1,509	1	111	2	53
Chard - - -	33	2,133	1	175	1	38
Yeovil - - -	27	1,672	1	253	—	—
Hereford and - - - } Dore - - - - - } Ross - - - - - } Leominster - - - } Bromyard - - - } Ledbury - - - } Upton-on-Severn - - }	30 14 28 25 18 32 26	2,464 589 1,362 1,438 1,088 1,694 1,879	— — 2 2 1 1 —	— — 231 184 90 72 —	6 2 — — — 1 1	221 131 — — — 31 50
Totals - - -	376	21,624	12	1,411	14*	554

It thus appears that out of the 402 elementary public day schools of this district, educating 23,589 children, 376 schools, educating 21,624 children, or 91·6 per cent. of the whole, are connected with the Church of England, and in nine instances out of ten under the direct management and superintendence of the parochial clergy. If anything like the same proportion obtains in other agricultural districts, and the population employed in agriculture exceeds that employed in manufactures and mining together,† it is obvious that this fact, so vitally affecting schools in one of their most prominent interests, must occupy almost the first place in the consideration of any scheme for the extension of a type of education which (whether the best that could be devised or not) is at present so intimately connected with the religious convictions of the people. Take away the religious element and the religious motive, and there would be an instantaneous collapse of nine tenths of these 402 schools. Even if the same amount of money were forthcoming, which I am certain would not be the case, mere money is not the motive power of education. Personal influence—the presence of some one loving heart and fostering hand—is the true lever; that which creates and maintains the efficiency of a school. This fact alone appears to me to demonstrate the impossibility of a merely secular education as the basis of a national system. If possible in large towns, amid a population indifferent, perhaps, to religious interests, and where it might hope for the

How far the denominationalism of schools affects the questions of a purely secular education.

* The three schools endowed by the late Lady Southampton in the parishes of Kenchester and Breinton (Union of Hereford), adopt as the basis of their religious teaching "the Articles of the Church of England Calvinistically interpreted," and the sole trustee is a clergyman of the Church. As, however, a meeting-house forms part of the institution, they are here classed as nonconformist schools. Four Roman Catholic schools are included in the same heading. The workhouse schools, which are under the supervision of the chaplain, and in which the Church catechism is taught, are reckoned as Church schools.

† In 1851 the numbers were given thus:—Of 9,816,597 persons aged 20 years and upwards in England and Wales, 1,576,081, or 16·1 per cent., were employed in agriculture; 819,802, or 8·4 per cent., in manufactures; and 623,171, or 6·3 per cent., in mining and mineral works.

patronage of a few abstract philanthropists, raised above the atmosphere of sectarianism, or weary of the strifes of rival creeds, where, therefore, it might thrive awhile, I feel sure, from all I heard and saw (and it is a subject on which I have often engaged persons in conversation), that it would receive no hearty welcome in country parishes. Every one's face is set against it. And those who know, as I know, how much of the success of a school, its cheerfulness, its life, its order, its manners, its moral tone, is due to the deep interest that zealous managers take in its welfare; those who have seen, as I have seen again and again in the course of this inquiry, schools drooping and teachers languishing, not from lack of funds, but simply from lack of encouragement, from the absence of signs that there was any one in the wide world feeling an interest in them and their work, would acknowledge at once that the cold system of a secular education would forthwith freeze up the genial current of personal sympathy, which is the very life blood of our present schools. But I fear that I may be thought to be passing into the region of opinion, which I have no right to enter; though the opinions I have expressed are not so much my own, as those which met my ears at every point to which my steps were turned. I content myself, therefore, with stating as a fact, that the education which I found at work in my district was essentially (but liberally) denominational; denominational, too, in the proportions which I have indicated in the Table: and that I could not discover that any other kind of education was desired, or, if offered, was likely to prove acceptable.*

3. Endowed schools.

c. In considering the distribution of schools according to any special feature which discriminates them, the question of Endowments naturally invites attention. I met with persons in all parts of my district holding very strong opinions on the mischievous effect of endowments, as at present administered, in actually hindering the work of education. A gentleman of extensive local knowledge, and long educational experience, who, in a conversation with me, spoke strongly, but not without having well weighed his words, asserts that the greatest benefactor to Herefordshire would be the man who should sweep away all its endowments, and cut down all its apple-trees; the one pauperize, the other brutalize the population. And when I was in their respective neighbourhoods, I heard the endowed schools at Toller Porcorum, Sydling St. Nicholas, Melbury Osmond, Colyton, Yetminster, Fownhope, Wellington, Cradley, and many other places, spoken of, not only as being utterly ineffective for the purposes of education, but as by their mere existence, by the very name even of the most inadequate endowment, repressing all local liberality and energy, and so

* I met with a farmer, a Baptist, who said that he thought the present education was too sectarian; by which he explained himself to mean, that all the schools in his neighbourhood were Church schools. He admitted, however, that the existence of this supposed sectarianism did not hurt him, and that his objection was chiefly one of theory: for his two sons went to the endowed Church school at Netherbury, and he could not say that any violence had been done either to his own or their religious convictions. The objection, therefore, when put to a practical test, vanished. He did not say that he was in favour of merely secular instruction.

standing in the way of any improvement. There were, however, a sufficient number of examples on the other side—as in the endowed schools at Dorchester, Netherbury, Beer (in spite of a radical fault in the trust deed), Ilminster, Bradford Abbas, Sherborne (the girls' school), Bromyard, Bosbury, Ledbury, all of which (though not all, equally) are in a healthy condition, and doing their work usefully, to show that the blame must lie, as I believe my Herefordshire friend meant it should lie, not on the endowment itself, as a mode of supporting a school, but on the way in which it is too generally administered.

These endowments are of two different kinds. Sometimes the school itself, the fabric or institution, is endowed; elsewhere, as at East Chinnock, certain lands or moneys are vested in trustees, with directions to apply their annual proceeds, in fixed proportions or otherwise, to a variety of parochial purposes, the education of poor children being one of them.* There may be a legal difference in the character of these endowments; but it appeared to me that practically and in effect they were the same. A more important difference is that between the cases, where the endowment specially devoted to the maintenance of the school is large, or at least large enough not to require, or not to be thought to require, the supplementation of local liberality, and where it is only a small pittance—5*l.* or 6*l.* a year—which forms but one, and that a very subordinate, figure in the whole income of the school. When endowments of the former kind can be put to as good a use as they are at the Blue Coat and Scudmore schools at Hereford, or at the boys' school at Bosbury, or when, belonging to the latter class, they can be utilized as they are at Bradford Abbas or Bishop's Frome, it would be unreasonable and untrue to declaim against the very principle of endowments as mischievous, or to throw all the cases into a lump as inherently and irremediably bad.

Endowments
of two kinds.

Capable of
being utilized,
though often
badly admin-
istered.

There are as great and as striking differences between endowed schools as between public schools of any other kind. Each is to be judged, as everything else must be judged, by its fruits. Perhaps the very best school that came under my observation—at least, there are not more than three others that can pretend to rival it—is an endowed school, the Blue Coat School at Hereford.

* The case of East Chinnock, in Somerset, may be taken as a sample of many. Certain houses and lands are bequeathed to certain trustees "for and towards the relief and maintenance of the poor, aged, and impotent people, orphans, and fatherless children of the said parish of East Chinnock; as also for and towards the maintenance of a school and poor scholars; and amendment and repairing of the highways, bridges, causeways, and watercourses, lying and being within the said parish; and for and towards the maintenance of the King's Majesty's armies and soldiers; and such other good and charitable purposes and uses, as to their good and wise discretion shall seem fit, and to no other use or uses, intent or intents." The income, at present, is about 50*l.* a year. 20*l.* is paid to the schoolmistress; every aged person receives a gift of 2*s.* 6*d.* at Christmas; a certain sum is paid in aid of private contributions towards a coal club, of which benefit every labouring family may partake; the rest is spent in repair of buildings, insurance, and occasional assistance to families in distress, to orphans, and fatherless children. The clergyman considers that the funds are properly administered.

Special difficulties of the endowed school.

The difficulties through which the endowed elementary school has to fight its way to excellence are obvious enough. The master probably, when once appointed, however his character may change for the worse, and whether his school thrive or dwindle in his hands, is irremovable, has a vested interest, or, if removable, only at considerable trouble and expense. He gets old and past his work, but there are no funds applicable to superannuation. The school is under no adequate supervision; its doors, by a very mistaken feeling on the part of the trustees, are generally closed against all inspection; its well doing, therefore, depends solely on the conscientiousness of the master, who by the very fixity of his tenure, and by the fact that no improvement in the school improves his income, has every temptation to be slovenly. There is, in almost all cases, a want of teaching power, as the endowers lived long before Bell and Lancaster had conceived the monitorial, or Sir J. Kay Shuttleworth the pupil-teacher, system. There is generally a most inadequate supply of books and apparatus, the trustees having no liberty to divert funds for the purpose of providing them, and the endowment acting as a bar to individual liberality. They are not unfrequently also saddled with very unfavourable conditions; as that the master must be a clergyman (who, perhaps, does the *elementary* work mainly by deputy, and takes private pupils of his own); or, that no child shall be received before eight, or (as at Beer) that none shall remain after ten.*

The condition of their fabrics, fittings, &c.

The buildings in which the endowed schools are held are often ruinous, and generally inconvenient, and the fittings of the room for the purpose of instruction are of the clumsiest and most antiquated style. The teachers have rarely had any special training for their office, though a fair proportion of them are intelligent persons who are doing their duty with a creditable amount of skill and success. I did not hear, nor had I reason to suspect, in any case, that impure motives had influenced their appointment.

It is, however, much to be regretted that the endowments themselves are not turned to better account, by being made, in perfect consistency with the spirit of their founders' intentions, the nuclei of really efficient schools, instead of being allowed to remain in precisely the same state, both as regards the income of the teacher, and the subjects expected to be taught, in which they existed a century ago. While every other school has been moving forward, they continue standing still; and it is this fact, more than any other, that has impressed upon them the character of being hindrances rather than helps in the education of the people. In too many cases, the trustees appear utterly apathetic, and at the same time extremely jealous of interference: there is, perhaps, no public statement of accounts, and, as is generally the

* These were the special complaints against Lady Rolle's endowed school at Beer. It is a noble, and, in many respects, liberal endowment; but its usefulness is marred by two unlucky conditions. The children must not enter till 8, and they leave at 10. The age for entering is too late for the girls, who begin lace-making at 6 or 7; and the age for leaving is far too early for the boys, who are mostly destined for the sea, but do not enter on their profession before 14.

case under such circumstances, suspicions find their way into the public mind, that the best is not being done with the funds, or that there is something which it is wished to conceal; while the master, left to his own devices, does simply what is right in his own eyes, and, if this should appear ever so wrong in the eyes of others, no one seems to think it part of his duty to remonstrate or interfere. Upon the whole, though I must speak highly of the merits of several of the endowed schools which I visited, and though I can see nothing to prevent them all from being raised to the highest condition of elementary efficiency, I must acknowledge as a fact, that in the majority of cases they do effectually quench private zeal, while what they offer as a substitute is not adequate to the efficient performance of the work that ought to be in hand. I should add, that I did not discover any traces, in the case of moribund or neglected endowments, of the Charity Commissioners having brought, *proprio motu*, any effective influence to bear upon their improvement or resuscitation. In many places I heard wishes expressed that they would.

Endowed schools, on the whole, not in a satisfactory condition.

Operations of Charity Commissioners.

d. The next Table that I have prepared will show the distribution of the public day schools (for I am at present speaking of no other) in my district, viewed in their natural divisions as boys', girls', infants', or mixed schools; and in relation to the teaching power, whether under a master or a mistress; whether availing themselves of the Government system of pupil-teachers or not.

Schools viewed in relation to the sex and age of their scholars, and the kind and amount of teaching power.

TABLE XI.

Name of Union.	Boys' School.	Girls' School.	Mixed School.	Infant School.	Total.	Under Master.	Under Mistress.	With Teacher Certificated.	With Teacher Trained.	With Pupil-Teachers.
Sherborne	5	3	19	2	29	6	23	4	8	4
Dorchester and Cerne	6	1	43	3	54	17	37	12	17	11
Beaminster	5	1	24	-	30	11	19	5	5	4
Axminster	5	4	16	3	28	13	15	7	7	4
Chard	3	2	28	2	35	11	24	8	8	4
Yeovil	4	3	21	-	28	13	15	5	3	3
Hereford and Dore	5	4	51	1	61	28	33	12	10	7
Ross	3	3	22	2	30	8	22	5	8	4
Leominster	3	2	21	1	27	12	15	4	9	4
Bromyard	4	2	13	-	19	8	11	5	4	3
Ladbury	6	6	20	2	34	11	23	8	11	6
Upton-on-Severn	5	4	15	3	27	10	17	3	13	4
Totals	54	36	293	19	402	148	254	78	103	53

The vast preponderance of mixed schools, and of schools under a mistress, at once catches the eye as it runs over this Table. Both are results that it was natural to expect in an agricultural district, particularly in one abounding with small parishes. The small extent to which the services of trained teachers, and the still smaller extent to which the services of certificated teachers* are

* Of the 78 teachers represented as certificated, 13 hold the certificates of competency, &c., awarded to teachers in workhouse schools, which reduces the number of certificated teachers (as usually understood) to 65.

Reasons that prevent the employment of certificated and pupil teachers.

retained, and the rare use that is made of the invaluable assistance of the pupil-teacher system, not quite one school in 6½ availing itself of it, are unsatisfactory symptoms. The simple account of the fact lies in the poverty, not the will, of the managers. In many cases, as might be anticipated, where considerably more than half the parishes—223 out of 387—have a population under 400, the number of scholars in ordinary attendance is too small to allow of a request for the apprenticeship of a pupil-teacher, the funds too low to permit the engagement of a trained or certificated mistress.* Indeed of the 103 who have been professedly trained, I should think that at least 20 have had only that nominal amount of training which is implied in having resided three, or at the most six months, in those normal schools, which at one time were willing to receive students for such limited periods. The good that is obtained by this amount of preparation, except in the case of a person of unusual aptness and quickness of apprehension, is infinitesimal indeed. I am very far from wishing to assert that a lengthened period of training, or even the possession of the highest grade of certificate, necessarily secures a good teacher; nor, on the contrary, that many of the untrained teachers are not, by virtue of natural tact and ability, very successful in the conduct of their schools. Indeed, the ties that often bind the managers of a school to the existing teacher—ties sometimes of a weak and mistaken charity, but more frequently of genuine and deserved respect and appreciation—are to be reckoned among the most influential causes that still keep many schools aloof from the system of Government aid. "We are quite sensible of the advantages," I have heard managers say again and again; "we wish we were in a position to accept them; but our present teacher is too old, or too timid, to be examined for a certificate, and we value him too highly to part with him, or to press him to take a step from which he himself shrinks." And when I have seen schools conducted so admirably, and in all respects so efficient, as, *e. g.* Mr. Ricardo's Boys' School at Berrow, or Mr. Baker's school at Monkland, under uncertificated, and, in the latter case, under an untrained teacher, I have fully admitted the force of the argument; and highly as I value the aid offered by the Committee of Council, which I regard as almost indispensable for the thorough efficiency of elementary schools, I should have shared the reluctance of these managers to change a system which was working so well, even were the schools my own.

Paucity of infant schools.

The paucity of infant schools is another observable feature in the Table. I need only call attention to the fact; the estimate that I have formed of the operation of the infant schools that do exist I have already recorded (p. 35, *supra*).

5. Distribution of children according to sex.

e. The only other Table that I have constructed, as illustrating the distribution of schools, will exhibit the proportion, (1) of the sexes, and (2) of the children who are either below or above the commonly received educational age. This table will include the

* The Minute of 26th July 1853, had hardly come into operation at the date of this inquiry.

numbers obtained from middle, as well as from elementary schools. It is in these middle schools that the largest number of scholars above 15 years of age are found; those under three are of course to be chiefly met with in the infant and smaller private schools.

TABLE XII.

Name of Union.	No. of Schools.		No. of Children in them.			Under Three Years of Age.	Above Fifteen Years of Age.
	Public.	Private.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.		
Sherborne	30	27	1,208	1,054	2,262	100	100
Dorchester and Cerne	55	52	2,075	2,034	4,109	176	129
Beaminster	30	35	1,030	981	2,023	31	11
Axminster	28	54	1,504	1,317	2,821	124	91
Charl	38	69	1,830	1,741	3,571	111	71
Yeovil	29	87	1,953	1,813	3,766	215	45
Hereford and Dore	62	40	2,307	2,126	4,433	80	169
Ross	30	20	1,020	950	1,970	12	36
Leominster	27	22	1,066	954	2,020	18	22
Bromyard	19	14	633	653	1,351	3	23
Ledbury	34	19	965	1,115	2,080	16	41
Upton-on-Severn	27	36	1,256	1,219	2,535	54	67
Totals	409	484	16,916	16,025	32,971	950	810

It appears, therefore, that in every Union but that of Ledbury the number of boys exceeds in pretty much the same proportions the number of girls. The same result is observable in the census returns. The fact is sufficiently explicable by the greater frequency with which the services of girls are demanded by the exigencies of home. For the exception to the rule at Ledbury I am unable to account.

I have not drawn up any Table to illustrate the ages of the children who are attending these schools; partly, because there were no materials for constructing such a Table out of the Returns which I received, (the ages asked for being those of the children who happened to be present at school on the day when the Return was made, and not of the whole number on the Register), and partly because it appears to me that a fundamental fallacy lies at the root of any inferences drawn either from averages of attendance or averages of age. You get your average, but it is not a true representation of the facts of the case. The result of one boy's having attended school 200 days in the year, while another has only attended 50, is not the same, nor anything like the same, as if each had attended 125 days. Two girls leave school, one at 7, the other at 13 years of age; the average is 10; but will any one tell me that the effect, socially and intellectually, is the same as if each child had stayed at school till she was 10? In the latter case, a good school being given, both girls would have been decently educated; sufficiently so, perhaps, for their station in life. As it is, whatever may be the superior attainment of the girl of 13, it is impossible that her companion, who was taken away to "glove," or to make lace at 7, can be said to be educated for the duties of life, or to have received any real mental culture at all. If the supposed case represented the rule of school attendance, the social result would be, that one half of the lower classes of the people would be educated, the other half would be living

No Table to illustrate the ages of children at school.

Fallacy of averages of attendance and averages of age.

Age, beyond which children cannot be expected to remain at school.

in a worse than Cimmerian darkness. Yet this is not quite the picture that is drawn by the hand of a taker of averages. I will however admit the conclusion drawn from averages so far. I will admit that, *on the average*, you must not expect in an agricultural district to be able to keep boys under instruction (as day schools are at present constituted) after 10, nor girls, at the outside, after 12. Indeed, it was well pointed out to me by the Hon. and Rev. W. Scott, of Maiden Newton (where there is an excellent though over-crowded school) that it is a question whether it would be even *desirable* to do so; whether you might not be doing an irreparable injury to the after-life prospects of the agricultural boy, by keeping him at school too long. It is the fashion to speak of agriculture as requiring only unskilled labour. It seems to me that it is a very erroneous epithet. The man who knows minutely the habits and manner of treatment of four or five different kinds of animals—horses, beasts, sheep, swine, poultry; who can hedge, ditch, thatch, thrash, mow, reap, plough a furrow, drive a drill, sow a field broadcast, as straight and true as though the line was chalked for him; this man wants something more than mere thews and muscle; he must possess cleverness of the hand and eye; and the first-rate farm labourer is as truly skilled as the first-rate mechanic or artizan. I know that his skill is not worth as much in the labour market, but that depends upon other considerations. Now this kind of skill can only be picked up at an early age, when the imitative faculties are strong; and I have again and again heard old labourers accounting for the bungling work made by some novice in the craft, by saying, "Ah, he never turned his hand to it till he got too old." So that even if it were possible, I doubt whether it would be desirable, with a view to the real interests of the peasant boy, to keep him at school till he was 14 or 15 years of age. But it is not possible. We must make up our minds to see the last of him, as far as the day school is concerned, at 10 or 11. We must frame our system of education upon this hypothesis; and I venture to maintain, that it is quite possible to teach a child soundly and thoroughly, in a way that he shall not forget it, all that is necessary for him to possess in the shape of intellectual attainment, by the time that he is 10 years old. If he has been properly looked after in the lower classes, he shall be able to spell correctly the words that he will ordinarily have to use; he shall read a common narrative—the paragraph in the newspaper that he cares to read—with sufficient ease to be a pleasure to himself and to convey information to listeners; if gone to live at a distance from home, he shall write his mother a letter that shall be both legible and intelligible; he knows enough of ciphering to make out, or test the correctness of, a common shop bill; if he hears talk of foreign countries he has some notions as to the part of the habitable globe in which they lie; and underlying all, and not without its influence, I trust, upon his life and conversation, he has acquaintance enough with the Holy Scriptures to follow the allusions and the arguments of a plain Saxon sermon, and a sufficient recollection of the truths taught him in his

What amount of education is possible under such conditions.

catechism, to know what are the duties required of him towards his Maker and his fellow man.* I have no brighter view of the future or the possibilities of an English elementary education, floating before my eyes than this. If I had ever dreamt more sanguine dreams before, what I have seen in the last six months would have effectually and for ever dissipated them. In such inspection of schools as time and opportunity allowed me to make, I strictly limited myself to testing their efficiency in such vital points as these; never allowing myself to stray into the regions of English grammar, or English history, or physical science,† unless I had previously found the ground under the children thoroughly firm, and fit to carry, without risk of settlements, a somewhat loftier and more decorated superstructure. Then it was but common justice to a conscientious teacher to take note of and show that one appreciated the higher mark at which he had aimed. Teachers look for such recognition, and cherish it as one of their best rewards.

Not that I would be understood as implying that one half, or even one quarter of the children, who leave our schools at ten years of age, carry with them into the business of life even the humble amount of accomplishments which I have named. But they ought to do; and in all the schools which in my list (Table XVIII.) I have named "efficient," I believe they do. No managers ought to be satisfied with their school, or think that it is giving anything worthy to be called education, if they do not. If people knew a little more of the interior of schools, a little more of the actual working of systems and less of their theories,—there would be an end, at once and for ever, of that cry, of which in my travels I heard the echoes again and again, that instruction is carried too high, the work is being overdone. Of the great majority of children sent out by our schools, Mr. Mitchell's account is only too true:—"They leave school, they go to work, and in the course of a year they know nothing at all."—(Essays on Educational Subjects read at the Educational Conference, 1857, p. 10.) The state in which most of them return to the night schools is a sufficient proof of this. And yet, I say it most deliberately, with *very little* more pains, with *very little* more

This standard seldom reached.

* Speaking from experience, and presupposing a fairly efficient school with adequate teaching power, I distribute the time thus:—I take my boy at 4 years old. By the time that he is 6, he ought to be able to read in such a book as the Second Irish Book, and know more or less of his multiplication table. Between 6 and 8 he will have advanced into the second class, and should read with tolerable facility the easier parts of the Third Irish Book, and work sums (probably) in the three first simple rules. Between 8 and 10 must be put the finishing strokes required to complete the picture drawn in the text. I think that some such rate of progress would not be a bad test of the efficiency of a school.

† Of English grammar, which I am sorely tempted to put down among the *essentials* of elementary education, and which I am satisfied from experience can easily be made intelligible to children 10 years old, I found little known in any school beyond a very mechanical acquaintance with the rules. In Bosbury school I saw a little boy about 11 years of age, who was quite a prodigy for his intelligent knowledge of English history. I had the pleasure of listening for a quarter of an hour to a most interesting lesson to the boys of the first and second classes on the conduction of heat, illustrated by experiments, by Mr. With, the Master of the Blue Coat School at Hereford, which I am certain that every boy in the classes understood.

expenditure of energy and money, it might in almost all schools be otherwise. It cannot be too strongly impressed upon the minds of school managers, that to stop short, be it only by an inch, of a certain point, is to do nothing at all.

Sunday schools. *f.* I proceed to speak of Sunday schools, which formed a special branch of my inquiry. The following Tables exhibit the statistical results, which I thought it most important to register in relation to them.

TABLE XIII.

The Statistics of Sunday Schools.

Name of Union.	No. of Sunday Schools.	No. of Scholars.	Average Attendance.	No. of Teachers.	At Census of 1851.		Increase in the No. of Children.
					No. of Schools.	No. of Scholars.	
Sherborne - - -	32	2,229	1,713	187	50	2,072	167
Dorchester & Cerne	67	3,655	2,779	283	56	2,958	697
Beaminster - - -	33	1,896	1,406	168	35	2,127	—
Axminster - - -	41	2,965	2,265	267	32	2,551	414
Chard - - - - -	56	4,572	3,425	523	46	4,523	20
Yeovil - - - - -	53	5,116	3,558	540	52	4,763	373
Hereford and Dore	62	3,193	2,213	365	49	2,622	571
Ross - - - - -	39	1,927	1,364	181	20	1,396	621
Leominster - - -	32	1,496	955	133	18	1,013	483
Bromyard - - -	21	883	656	89	19	726	157
Ledbury - - - -	34	1,585	1,002	108	17	1,022	523
Upton-on-Severn -	23	1,693	1,107	107	15	1,020	589
Totals - - - - -	498	31,275	22,592	2,993	389	26,763	4,512

TABLE XIV.

Exhibiting the Denominationalism of Sunday Schools.

Name of Union.	Church of England.		Nonconformist.		Percentage of Scholars in Church Schools.
	No. of Schools.	No. of Scholars.	No. of Schools.	No. of Scholars.	
Sherborne - - - -	28	1,735	4	564	75.4
Dorchester - - - -	34	2,116	7	424	83.3
Cerne - - - - -	20	657	6	158	84.9
Beaminster - - - -	27	1,722	6	274	86.2
Axminster - - - -	25	2,006	16	959	67.6
Chard - - - - -	36	2,766	20	1,786	60.7
Yeovil - - - - -	35	2,898	18	2,218	56.6
Hereford and Dore	45	2,287	17	996	71.6
Ross - - - - -	25	1,076	11	651	55.8
Leominster - - - -	23	987	9	509	65.9
Bromyard - - - - -	16	690	5	223	74.7
Ledbury - - - - -	29	1,312	5	213	81.6
Upton-on-Severn - -	25	1,437	3	171	69.3
Totals - - - - -	363	21,989	130*	9,280	69.9

Condition of Sunday schools in the county of Somerset.

At the close of the year 1857, the Bishop of Bath and Wells issued a letter to the clergy of his diocese *i.e.* of the county of Somerset, to inquire into the causes of an alleged falling off in the attendance at Sunday schools, the number of scholars in the Church Sunday schools in that county having been stated to be

* I have already mentioned (p. 4) that there are two Nonconformist Sunday schools, one belonging to the Wesleyans, at Marshwood, in Dorsetshire, the other of the Baptists, at Yarcombe, in Somersetshire, from which I could get no return sent to me.

49,360 in 1847, and only 43,868 in 1857. The answers to this letter show that the clergy, as a body, do not consider that there has been a falling off at all proportionate to that stated, in their individual Sunday schools; but they appear to admit that their Sunday schools are not thriving, and attempt to account for the increased difficulty in getting scholars to attend them by a variety of causes, the cause which most of them concur in alleging being the vast improvement in the day schools.

From the Tables given above, it would seem that in all the Unions, except Beaminster (where there has been a decrease both in the number of schools and in the number of scholars), there has been an increase; and that in all the others, except Chard, that increase has been considerable. It is true that when I look at the large number of scholars in the dissenting Sunday schools in the two Unions of Chard and Yeovil, I cannot help believing that the statement of the diminution of the number of scholars in the Church schools, as far as that part of the diocese of Bath and Wells is concerned, is correct. But everywhere else the Sunday schools, if not prospering, are at least increasing. I say "if not prospering," because I have grave doubts about their prosperity. There is no doubt that they have suffered in the diminished interest taken in them by the increased interest taken in the day school. I was in the habit of visiting one or more every Sunday that I was engaged in the inquiry, but of all that I saw—some 20—there is not one that has not left the impression of weariness and deadness upon my mind. From the figures in Table XIII., they appear to call forth the zeal of a large number of teachers;* but from what I saw in many cases I should say that it is not a zeal according to knowledge; and that many young people, with a strong desire to do good, yet unfortunately do not quite know the way how. There is no life in the teaching, nothing to interest the mind, much less to draw out the affections. There is very little discipline, very little punctuality. Children keep dropping in up to within a very few minutes of the time of starting for church. In some parishes the Sunday school is reduced to little more than a mere assembling together of the children in the school-room preparatory to church; in others, repetition of the collect, and reading the psalms, epistle, and gospel of the day, constitute the whole of the teaching. I do not remember an instance of adult classes. The scholars are mostly composed, in the Church schools, of the same children that attend the day school, with the addition of a few elder boys and girls, who continue for a year or two to attend school on Sunday, when they have ceased to come on week days, but who rarely stay till their confirmation. More interest very probably is thrown into the dissenting Sunday schools, for the reason already assigned, that none, or at any rate very little, is absorbed by the day school. As a rule, the instruction with

General increase of Sunday schools and Sunday scholars.

Doubt about their prosperity.

General character of Sunday schools.

Evening schools popular, but rarely efficient.

* In one Sunday school in Worcestershire, I found the girls' school on morning with two teachers to one scholar. Certainly it was a wet morning wet as to prevent my walking a mile to see the school, and there were plenty at no great distance. The parish contained a population, in 1851, of 1, D 2

tion is confined to religious subjects, but I found a Sunday school at Leominster, supported chiefly by the Society of Friends, but undenominational in its character, where the scholars spend the first half hour in writing, the copies being texts of Scripture; and at Stoke Prior, near the same town, the mistress told me that she had tempted some farmers' boys, who would otherwise have been idling about the street, to come to school by offering them the same kind of instruction.

I do not think that in this district the clergy generally teach much in the Sunday school; and all the dissenting schools are under the management of a superintendent, who is distinct from the minister. My own impression upon the whole question is, that Sunday schools, having done a great and a good work for 80 years, are in the first stage of dying out, as an instrument of education no longer needed in the presence of the improved condition and enlarged usefulness of the day school. I am quite certain that many clergymen are looking forward to the time when an increased sense of responsibility on the part of parents shall relieve them of the burden of the Sunday school. The change which has been long advocated, and which is gradually coming into use, of children sitting with their own parents in church, instead of being grouped all together under the supervision of a teacher, and kept in order by the fear of the cane, is another step in the same direction. Indeed it becomes a question of serious social importance, whether we are not already doing too much to divest the parent of all responsibility in the intellectual, moral, and spiritual well-doing of the child; whether if the Sunday school increased in efficiency commensurately with the day school, we should not be making the school stand too absolutely *in loco parentis*; and whether it is not almost a compensation, a kind of vindication of a law of nature, that the Sunday school dwindles, in proportion as the day school thrives. These impressions, which are very distinct, have been forced upon me by what I have seen, against the grain of my previous convictions; for I have always felt a pleasure in teaching in my own Sunday school, and have done my best to make it effective; yet, somehow or other, have felt what I could not account for, but what I see exists extensively elsewhere, *that the result was not a success*, and that the thing hung, comparatively speaking, dead upon my hands. Perhaps the fact that many of the boys are fatigued by their week's work in the fields, and so give a listless tone to the school, may account for this; and, as the evil is felt much more strongly in country Sunday schools than in those in towns, I am inclined to think that this is not an improbable conjecture.*

Condition of
Sunday schools
in the county of
Somerset.

De _____
the _____
Church, find that the Somersetshire clergy allege, among the favourable causes that may _____ for the diminution of interest felt in Sunday schools, "the increase in the _____ of parents both able and willing to teach their children at home on Sundays _____ us to keep them at home on that day;" among unfavourable causes they

* I have already alluded to "competent teachers," and (2) "the very inferior, unattractive, and one belonging to character of the instruction given in many Sunday schools." These views are at Yarcombe, in Somersetshire.

g. But if the Sunday school has had its day, and is on the wane, the evening or night school is an instrument, the power of which as yet we hardly know, but which seems capable of immense development, and, when properly worked, is the very remedy for the most obstinate of the difficulties that beset the path of the educator. At present, evening schools are only in their infancy, and, though they nominally come within the scope of the Minutes of the Committee of the Privy Council, I only found one place in the whole of my district—Lyme Regis—where the day school was brought into such relation with the night school that the proffered assistance could be used. The following Table shows the extent to which night schools existed in the district in the winter of 1858-59.

TABLE XV.

Name of Union.	Number of Night Schools.	Number of Scholars in them.	Number above 16 Years of Age.	Number learning Subjects beyond Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic.
Sherborne - -	7	338	110	62
Dorchester - -	15	323	91	58
Cerne - - -	8	101	35	18
Beaminster - -	12	375	182	73
Axminster - -	11	363	160	55
Chard - - -	19	514	172	60
Yeovil - - -	20	764	216	121
Hereford - -	9	125	60	9
Ross - - -	6	82	52	10
Leominster - -	2	40	21	—
Bromyard - -	2	21	16	—
Ledbury - - -	2	30	25	—
Upton-on-Severn-	8	123	39	41
Totals - - -	121	3,199	1,179	507

The first thing that strikes the attention, in considering this Table, is the disproportion in the distribution of these night schools. Of the 121 schools, and 3,199 scholars, in the Hereford district there are only 29 schools and 421 scholars; in six Unions, not so many scholars by 93 as there are in the Union of Chard; not so many by 343 as there are in the Union of Yeovil alone. The scattered character of the population—only 138 persons and 29 houses to the square mile—and the state of the roads together sufficiently account for the discrepancy. In Herefordshire I frequently heard of night schools that had existed in former winters, but had failed from want of scholars. In the south there was no difficulty experienced in getting scholars; the pinch was to find teachers.

That the night school is a thoroughly popular institution with the poorer classes is quite certain; that, as at present conducted, it is as efficient as it is popular, cannot by any means be affirmed.

I saw several very *interesting* night schools, at Powerstock, at Beaminster, at Lyme, at Upton-on-Severn; but the only really *efficient* one that I witnessed at work, the only one full of life and progress and tone of the best kind, was the one at Sherborne, which owes its origin and its prosperity to the philanthropic zeal and large sacrifices of money, time, and personal comfort of Mr. Macready. If night schools of that class were at work generally in our towns, their influence upon the education of the people would be incalculable. It is just what is wanted to carry on the training unhappily left so imperfect by the day school. Not that even this, by far the most flourishing night school that I had an opportunity of visiting, can be said to supply its scholars with secondary education: it does but lay again, or else deepen and widen a little, the foundations of the primary. It is true that, in my Table, 507 scholars in the 121 schools, nearly one in six of the whole, are returned as travelling beyond the range of mere lessons in reading, writing, and arithmetic; but I do not recollect an instance (unless it were in the classes of the Literary Institute at Yeovil, that had been formed, but were not succeeding, for instruction in French and drawing,—only a dozen pupils had been tempted to attend); besides this I do not recollect an instance of any subject introduced into the programme of a night school which is not included in the ordinary routine of primary schools. Night schools like that of Mr. Macready are, of course, capable of being used as instruments of secondary instruction, and, if the demand existed for it, doubtless would be; but at present there does not appear to be much desire among the working classes to extend their education beyond the primary stage; or, if there is, it dislikes to submit to the irksomeness and discipline of a school, and prefers picking up stray scraps of knowledge for itself out of books in a more independent though less profitable way.

They do not give secondary education.

The rural night school.

The night school in most country parishes is quite of a different type from that which characterizes those in towns. It has to struggle into life, and to maintain life, under much greater difficulties. It is comparatively easy to enlist the services both of voluntary and paid teachers in the town; in the country a competent superintendent is hardly to be had for love or money. The clergyman is generally obliged to undertake the duty; in some cases it is discharged, and not unsuccessfully, by females. It is this difficulty of finding teachers that imparts to the country night school a character of great precariousness. You cannot count on its continuance for two winters together. I continually met with instances of schools, flourishing last winter, non-existent this; yet almost every clergyman who has tried them considers them to have been a success, and the popularity and the earnestness with which they are used is to the full as great in the villages as in the towns. "The poor," it is sometimes said, "do not value education." I only wish that those who entertain this notion had seen, as I have seen, some of these town and country night schools. Is it no mark of earnestness that a boy of 15 or 16, after a hard

A proof that the poor value education.

day's work of following the plough across miry fields, will come home, make himself tidy, put on a clean frock, perhaps brush his shoes, and sally forth again three or four nights in the week, possibly with a walk of a mile or two before him, not to the public house, but to the night school? In Mr. Macready's school I saw a little fellow, 12 years old, who worked 12 hours a day at a coachmaker's, who literally shortened his dinner time by half-an-hour to get his work forward, and be able to leave the shop at half-past seven, in time for his evening school. At Powerstock, I was present at the opening of the evening schools for the winter. There is a male and a female department; in the former, there were 30 present; in the latter 35. The clergyman expected the numbers would grow to be 100; and that, out of a population of 1,050. I was asked to make them an address, and I could not help being very vividly impressed with the look of determination that sat on every face, as though they meant to tell me that they were come there to work, and not merely to spend time. No value set upon education? Why, in an utterly neglected village in Somersetshire (neglected by everybody but by an elderly gentleman and his wife residing there, who have interested themselves to form a Sunday school), a man who has a night school of about 30 scholars, said he could easily double the number if he had any one to help him, and he could find a room large enough to hold them. The people seemed to feel that they were perishing for lack of knowledge. In another village in the same neighbourhood, scarcely better provided with the appliances of education, a lively, intelligent Irish woman, who has a small night school, told me that she found the people very ignorant, but *most desirous* to learn. But these facts ought perhaps rather to have appeared in the evidence, where I have stated the most interesting phenomena that I observed in relation to night schools.

There cannot be the least doubt that the subject which is most attractive in the night school is the writing lesson. The young people also seem generally thankful for a little instruction in ciphering. I fear that the reading lesson is less popular, because it brings out into too strong relief the deficiencies of earlier education, and makes the pupils too keenly conscious of the loss of power they have sustained since leaving school. In the large majority of cases the teachers are voluntary, being in fact the clergymen of the respective parishes. In Mr. Macready's school there are three paid teachers, but there are rarely funds for engaging that kind of aid. Many of the night schools, however, are private, carried on by the masters or mistresses either of public or private day schools for their own benefit, and on their own terms. In most of the *public* night schools (if I may so call them) the instruction is free.

Writing the most attractive subject in the night school.

In that at Sherborne not only is it so, but large inducements are offered to attendance, in the shape of very handsome and liberal prizes. Mr. Macready considers it the great thing to get *his boys to school anyhow*.

With regard to the extension and improvement of evening schools, perhaps I may be allowed to reserve what I have to say, till I come to the suggestions on the subject of education generally, which I shall venture to offer at the close of this report. I will only add, that all I have seen convinces me that they are *the* instrument of education which, under our actual circumstances there is most need to use, and most chance of using successfully.

IV. Having now stated, as briefly as I could, the number and kinds of schools from which I have obtained returns, their distribution, their proportion to the population, and the signs of growth or decay which any particular class of school, or any particular neighbourhood, now exhibits, as compared with its position in the census returns of 1851, I proceed, following the tenor of my instructions, to describe the condition, methods, and results of education, in the area which I have examined, as far as I have arrived at distinct conclusions about them.

a. The condition of education is, of course largely affected by the laws, or perhaps I should say the phenomena, of supply and demand; and as these phenomena are very unequally distributed, the condition of education is subject to proportionate variations. Let me illustrate my meaning by an example.

The two parishes of Lopen and Hinton St. George, in Somersetshire (Chard Union), lie within three miles of each other. At Hinton there is a superabundant *supply* of school accommodation—a room that would hold 200 children—but no *demand* for the particular article of education that is offered there. The population of the parish is 728; the number on the school register is 60—not one in twelve of the population—the average attendance is 39; and on the day of my visit there were not above 25 children present, who were huddled together in one of the class-rooms, the main schoolroom being wholly disused. There is a supply, therefore, of a certain quality, in ample quantity, but no demand. In Lopen, on the other hand, there are loud and earnest demands, but no supply. There is no public day school in the parish, which is a perpetual curacy of about 80*l.* a year, with a population of 477. It would be an utterly misleading calculation, therefore, to sum up the area of all the schoolrooms in my district, and reckoning the space required at eight square feet per child, to put the result side by side with the estimated juvenile population, and then pronounce upon the sufficiency or insufficiency of the supply to meet the demand. It would be the fallacy of averages again.

Further, the measurement of schoolroom areas is no true gauge of the supply of education. You not unfrequently meet with huge schoolrooms, in which the education offered does not deserve the name; or again, handsome and spacious buildings erected, but standing idle and unused from lack of funds. I cannot give a more accurate description of the state of things, than by saying that, though the demand is general, and in many cases importu-

Condition of education affected by the law of supply and demand, therefore variable.

Not ascertainable by averages.

Supply very unequal.

nate, the supply is very unequal. There are great patches of country utterly destitute, or at best diversified at long intervals by a well-cultivated spot, betokening the presence of some liberal heart and diligent hand, and by the contrast heightening the gloom and dreariness of the surrounding waste. Thus, in the very large range of country between Dorchester and Sherborne, some 17 miles in length, and 7 or 8 miles broad, there are on the west side the efficient schools of Maiden Newton, Cattistock (these being close together), and Bradford Abbas; on the east, the schools at Admiston, Piddletrenthide, and Buckland Newton, each good of its kind; but, beyond these, a school answering all the purposes of a school, really educating the people as they ought to be educated, you would try in vain to find. Yet the district I mean includes at least 40 parishes. The country, again, between Beaminster and Sherborne, or between Beaminster and Crewkerne, or between Beaminster and Axminster, is not much better off; indeed, in the whole of this Union there are not above six or seven schools with the condition of which the managers ought to be satisfied. The northern half of the Union of Axminster is specially in want of good schools; and there are large villages—almost towns—like Colyton, Seaton, and Beer, to the south, which are very inadequately provided for. In the Union of Chard there are excellent schools, at Chardstock, Combe St. Nicholas, Buckland St. Mary, all on the same side of the country; and very promising ones at Ilminster, Shepton Beauchamp, Merriott, and East Dowlish; but there the supply ends. In Yeovil Union there are admirable schools at East Coker and Montacute; and excellent types of small village schools at Hardington, Lyminster, Marston, and a few other places; but the general character of the Union is barrenness; and in Yeovil itself the state of the public schools is unsatisfactory.

If I were to travel through the Unions of Herefordshire it would only be with the same result, and the only conclusion at which I can arrive is, that the supply of education is very unequally distributed; and this, as we are dealing with an article of first necessity, is equivalent to saying that it is inadequate. A parish ought to be no more able to do without an efficient school than it can do without water. And therefore inadequate.

I do not mean that there are many parishes without adequate *school accommodation*, though there are more even in this state than I was pleased to see, particularly in some parts of Herefordshire; but that the school accommodation which exists is turned to very unequal account. I do not think people are sufficiently aware that it is an infinitely more important, and an infinitely more difficult, thing to get a school supported than to get a school built; to get a good teacher than to get a tasteful architect; to *instruct* than to *construct*. I could point the moral by many a wholesome example from my district, if it were necessary. There is generally an adequacy of school accommodation.

Still, with a very strong sense that the condition of education in this large breadth of country is not what it ought to be, and with a very distinct recollection how lamentably few and far between the Deficiency of accommodation not the cause of non-attendance.

really good schools are, I do not believe that in any considerable part of the district a deficiency in school accommodation, at least a remediable one, is the cause of children's non-attendance at school. With the single exception of the parish of Kempsey,—where two schoolrooms, which will barely hold 30 children each, are manifestly insufficient for the educational wants of 1,400 people, and where I was told that the numbers could easily be doubled if there were room,—I do not remember a case in which the managers of a school have been obliged to turn away children from sheer want of room. There is, however, a kind of deficiency of school accommodation that is not remediable. A school cannot be brought to the door of every dozen cottages that happen to be contiguous; the distance must often be too great for children of very tender years, for whom, therefore, the only practicable provision must be by means of dames' schools. But it must be a very backward region indeed, where there is not a school with some pretensions to efficiency within three or four miles walk of a man's cottage; and I have seen cases enough to know that a distance of that kind proves no bar to education when once an interest in the cause is fairly awakened. There are children in the schools at East Coker, Montacute, Tedstone Wafer, and Luckton, who cheerfully walk their three or four miles daily, bringing their dinners with them. And from a similar experience in my own school, I would venture to say, that those who come from the greatest distance are neither the least regular nor the least punctual. I do not mean to say that such a state of things is the most convenient, or the most desirable; and there is plenty of room yet for the erection of better and more numerous schools; the parochial clergy are straining their utmost to get them; and in almost every parish where things at present are unsatisfactory, as, *e. g.* at Weston-sub-Penyard, you hear hopes, faint sometimes and faltering, but still hopes, expressed that before long they will be mended; in a few, as at Little Marcle and Eldersfield, preparations are actually in hand, the timber cut, and the site conveyed; while in one or two, as at Much Cowarne, the structure is finished, and, as soon as teachers shall have been secured, the new era will be inaugurated. If the progress is only as rapid for the next ten years as it has been during the last ten, and we must not be too impatient, the face of the district will be very fully occupied with the brick and mortar requisites of education.

Estimated
amount of non-
attendance.

But before I proceed to consider how far the non-attendance of children in the school is produced by a want of demand on the part of the parents, it will be as well to estimate, approximately, what the actual amount of the non-attendance is. If I take from 4 to 12 as the ordinary school age, I find, by a formula with which I have been supplied by the kindness of the Registrar General, that in a population of 248,200 (the estimated population of this district in 1859) there would be about 45,266 children between those years. There are (see Table VI.) 32,971 children's names borne on the strength of the schools, 950 of whom are under 3, and 810 above 15. If I further deduct 712 as the estimated number

between 3 and 4, and 2,133 as the estimated number between 12 and 15, I have left 28,361 children, out of the estimated 45,266 between the ages of 4 and 12, who are professedly at school.

It thus appears, that, in the district to which my inquiry was confined, there may be estimated to be 16,905 children—more than one third of the whole number—between the ages of 4 and 12, the reasonable educational limits—who are not enjoying the advantages of instruction in any kind of day school. Two thirds of these, perhaps, are precariously employed on odds and ends of labour, to a certain extent remunerative; or, if girls, in either assisting or taking the place of their mothers in the domestic exigencies of large families. The other third, whose homes are mainly in the back lanes of the country towns, are to be found idling, or playing, or begging about the street, or else extemporizing, considerably to its damage, various ingenious playthings of the hobby or rocking horse kind, out of the furniture of the cottage, which the absent mother has left entirely at their mercy. In the Homend Street of Ledbury; in St. Owen's Street, Hereford, in front of the very school door; in Sheep Street, Bromyard; in the back streets of Yeovil; in that wretched row of houses, built in pre-reform days for electioneering purposes, in the outskirts of Ilchester; in a cottage or two in most country villages, you will infallibly meet with groups, more or less large, of such children. The two classes, however, are of entirely different parentage. The one owes its existence simply to the poverty, the other to the indifference, thriftlessness, recklessness of their parents. The apathy and the poverty of parents are the two sufficient causes both of the non-attendance and of the irregular attendance of children in the schools. Distance, difficulty in raising the school fee, differences of religious belief, objections to the instruction given as unsuitable, or to the teacher giving it as incompetent,—these are not the influencing causes. They may be sometimes alleged by the thrifless parent as excuses, but they are not his real motives. These lie deeper,—in the selfish sensuality which will gratify itself, no matter at what cost to others; or, in the rarer and better instances, in the “deep poverty” which cannot afford to dispense with the pittance, however scanty, which the child's earnings add to the 8s. or 9s. a week, which is the ordinary income, in this district, of the agricultural labourer.

Probable distribution of non-attending children.

Causes of non-attendance.

1. Poverty.
2. Apathy of Parents.

The peasant's wages are *never* up to the mark that can allow of his sacrificing the earnings of his child to higher considerations. He is not influenced by social and economical changes, like the mechanic or the artizan. He is no better off when his wages are 12s. a week than when they are 8s. Nay, I have a very decided conviction that he is worse off. For in Dorsetshire and Herefordshire 12s. wages would imply that wheat was at 80s. a quarter, while 8s. a week means that it is not at more than 40s. And to people who hardly ever taste fresh meat, and to whom, in a very emphatic sense, bread is the “staff of life,” a rise in the price of the gallon loaf from 9d. to 1s. 6d. is very inadequately com-

Amount of children's wages.

pened by a simultaneous, though by no means proportionate, rise of wages from 8s. to 12s. I ascertained, from the book which registers the different applications for relief at the Dorchester workhouse, that a girl of 15 earns 2s. 6d. a week; a boy of 15, 3s. 6d.; of 11, 2s.; of 10, 1s. 6d.; and these figures may be taken as representing the average earnings of children of the same ages in any purely agricultural locality. They are not high, but they are high enough for the purpose,—high enough to outbid the school, and to make the poor ignorant parent think that what was education enough for him (though, if he had the power of reflecting, he would perhaps discover that what he calls his education has been forgotten long ago)—still to think, that what was education enough for himself must be education enough for his child.

Children stay at school now longer than they did 25 or 50 years ago.

Indeed, though, from all inquiries that I have been able to make, and in spite of dismal assertions to the contrary, I am persuaded that children, on the average, stay longer at school, not perhaps than they did a few years ago, before the tide of emigration set in so strongly, but longer than their fathers and mothers did, and, still more so, longer than their grandfathers and grandmothers, yet there can be no doubt that the improved methods of education which have been introduced have of themselves a tendency to cause the earlier withdrawal of children from school. If a boy in a good school knows more at ten than fifteen years ago he would have known at twelve, there is a *primâ facie* case made out for his being fit to leave school. He will be seldom withdrawn till his physical strength is equal to the duties he will have to perform; but his intellectual maturity (according to the parent's standard) will make that parent lend a readier ear to the first overtures of an employer; whereas, had the boy but been in the second class instead of the first, and were only just able to form pothooks instead of writing a tolerable running hand, his reply would probably have been, "Why, sir, the lad is but young yet, and I should wish him to have another year at school."

Improved education unfavourable to an increased period of attendance.

The majority of parents do not withdraw their children from bad schools sooner than good ones.

There can be no doubt, I think, that the majority of parents try to secure for their children the best education within reach; but I have no reason for supposing that the period they allow for their children's schooling is ever lessened by any unfavourable estimate they may form of the efficiency of the school. I have often heard regrets expressed that they had no better school to send their children to, but in default of the better they put up with the worse. They have fixed in their own minds the time at which their boy should go to work; and when that time comes, whether he knows little or much, to work he goes. I do not mean to say that they have not their own notions about the efficiency of schools, and that they do not value a really good education more highly than a bad one; I have simply spoken of the efficiency of the school as having very little to do with determining the period of attendance of the children. Their measure of the efficiency of a school is generally a very simple one—the rapidity with which their children learn to write well. They are

Parents' measure of schools' efficiency.

not very good judges of reading, and still worse of spelling; they have seldom the faculty of asking questions to ascertain how far the instruction given is sound and thorough, or only superficial; their knowledge of arithmetic, at the best, is only an acquaintance with rules and mechanical processes; but the production of a ciphering book, diversified with various specimens of caligraphy, and the sums neatly set out with lines of black, and red, and blue, is an unfailing source of pleasure and pride, and is produced as the one conclusive test of the satisfactory progress of the child.

This achievement was the great success of the best of the old type of schoolmasters, such as are still found lingering on in some of the endowed schools; and it is the point upon which, in all private schools, which aspire to be better than nurseries, and are considered more fashionable than the National School, the greatest attention is bestowed.

I did not observe the existence of any preference of one system to another among the parents of the children in elementary schools. It may be inferred, however, from the extinction of private adventure schools before the presence of a really good public school, that the superior advantages of the latter are sufficiently appreciated by them, at any rate for their elder children; and from the complaints they frequently make on the subject, they are evidently aware of the weak point in public schools,—the inadequate attention that is paid to the lower classes. They utterly disapprove of the monitorial system, though I never heard any objection taken to instruction being given by pupil-teachers. They are *very touchy* on the subject of discipline; and as their own punishment of their children generally proceeds from the passion of the moment—a word and a blow—they can hardly conceive of punishment, administered deliberately, as being otherwise than cruel, or of its ever having for its object (so to speak) the reformation of the criminal, and not the gratification of the resentment of the judge. So far is this feeling operative, that it is almost impossible to maintain anything like an effective discipline, to enforce punctuality, or tidiness, or personal cleanliness, to cut down the love of finery and tawdry display, even using the mildest means, in a town or in a parish where there are rival schools. To attempt it immediately involves, in nine cases out of ten, the transference of the child's name from the books of one school to those of the other. It is, of course, a game at which two can play; and even on the low principles of competition in such a matter, neither school can be ultimately benefited by it. Yet school-managers seem to make no difficulty about receiving renegades; and, though a healthier relation might at once be established by a concordat, I have not met with a case of such remedy being either suggested or employed. That a parent or a child should have a refuge from tyranny or from interference with any conscientious scruples is quite another question, and both reasonable and just; but these are imputations that are hardly ever thrown upon the management of a school, while the shifting from school to school on the most capricious excuses is, where possible, all but universal.

Extent of parents' preferences about schools.

They render discipline difficult.

The "religious difficulty" inappreciable in its bearing upon parents' preferences.

National Society's terms of union.

Point upon which the "religious" difficulty, where it exists, turns.

b. Indeed, "conscientious scruples," or "the religious difficulty," in the matter of education, however formidably they may be dressed up in theory or for the purpose of agitation, become reduced to the most insignificant proportions, when actually brought to the test of facts. I do not say that they may not occasionally exist in some captious minds, but I do say that the religious instruction given in the public schools is not likely to evoke them, never being given, as far as I have seen, with any controversial animus; and in the whole course of my inquiry, though I made it a point of special investigation, I never met with a case constituting a real grievance. It is true, at Leominster the enforcement to the letter of the National Society's terms of union, and the requirement that all the children attending the day schools should also attend church on Sunday, has led to the re-establishment of a defunct British school, and caused a good deal of discussion both in the town and neighbourhood. It may indeed be a question, whether the National Society's terms of union, though, in the third article, they allow a discretion to the managers of a school, are the aptest that could be devised to meet the exigencies of a church that is set down with almost a missionary work before it in the midst of a divided and sometimes alien people. But the National Society is, I presume, bound by its charter to its terms of union; and though the managers of some National schools interpret these liberally, and consider the rule rather as indicating a point at which they are to aim than as defining the ground they are actually to occupy, and therefore do not absolutely require attendance at church as a condition of being admitted to the benefits of daily instruction, yet I do not see how managers who have accepted the terms of the Society concurrently with its aid can be censured as intolerant for construing them strictly; and in the case of the Leominster schools, a sufficient justification of what has been done may be found in the facts, (1) that in a town of 5,000 inhabitants it may fairly be presumed that there is ample scope for two public schools; and that (2) till this rule was enforced the children, in the majority of cases, I was informed by the vicar, went to no place of worship at all.

It deserves to be mentioned, that the religious difficulty (as it is called), practically turns wholly upon the question of attendance at church, and not on either teaching or learning the Church Catechism. To show how rare are the objections to this venerable formulary, it is taught in two out of every three private schools, I do not say with what intelligence, but as a matter of course. The "catechiz," as they term it, furnishes the good old dames with their staple stock of divinity. In the large central schools at Dorchester, where there are 410 children under instruction, both master and mistress told me, that, though all are taught on the same principle, they never knew an instance of parents objecting to the catechism; yet a large proportion of the children belong to dissenting parents, who even send them to the Sunday school, and call for them when that is over, to take them with themselves to chapel. At Sherborne, where at the time of my

visit a good deal of religious excitement prevailed, and partizan newspapers were trying to persuade people that their children were being indoctrinated with all kinds of error in the National schools, the master informed me that the agitation had quite missed its aim, and that parents were too sensible of the solid advantages their children were gaining at the school to allow any mistrust to enter their minds, or to remove their children, though there was a British school in the town, itself efficient and prosperous, open to receive them. Indeed, though the fact cuts two ways, I am quite satisfied that the parents themselves are too ignorant of the distinctions of religious creeds to make it probable that, where they are satisfied with the general progress of their children, they will ever raise a special objection to the character of the religious instruction, and that in every case where a preference is shown of one school to another, it will be found to rest ultimately on some (to them) infinitely more intelligible ground, *e. g.* that their boys have grown too old for the control of a mistress, or that the school they go to is more conveniently situated, or that the fees are lower, or they like the teacher better, or they send their children for company's sake to where the neighbours send theirs.

The real grounds of preferences.

c. The circumstance of industrial training forming an adjunct to the instruction given in a school cannot yet be said to influence either the attendance of the children or the feelings of the parents. The phenomenon of an industrial school in my district has been too rare to serve as a basis for any induction, and the opinions therefore that I entertain about them are purely *à priori*, derived partly from the judgment of others, partly from my own ideas of the possible and impossible. It appears to me to be simply and entirely a question of finance.

An industrial department, how far an actual, how far a possible, feature in schools.

An industrial department is quite possible, and indeed almost necessary, in a workhouse. The children there are generally of a greater age than those in an ordinary parochial school; the girls are one and all destined for service; and they have no opportunity of acquiring, except through such a medium, a knowledge of the domestic duties that will be required of them, either as servants in the families of others, or when they come to be wives and mothers in their own. There is no difficulty either in arranging the details of such a department; cooking, washing, house cleaning, gardening, are already carried on within the walls on a large scale. There is plenty of practice for "prentice hands." An industrial trainer can be appointed, by the help of the Committee of Council, at an inconsiderable expense; and when appointed, can be utilized in a variety of ways. But of the thirteen workhouses which I visited, only three, Beaminster, Yeovil, Hereford, employed such an officer, and I could not discern any special feature in the result, anything to show that the children were being taught to do the work more thoroughly or more intelligently than they would have done it under the superintendence of their father and mother at home. I do not deny that the eight acres of land under cultivation at Hereford looked in good order, or that the copper utensils at Beaminster were bright and tidy. I allow full force to

the fact, that the master of this latter workhouse told me, that in the last 15 months he had sent out 23 girls to service, and that not one of them had been returned upon his hands. The only question I would raise is, whether the girl who leaves her mother's cottage at 15 to enter service, would not be able to bake, to iron, to cook, to clean as well as her workhouse competitor; whether the boy who left his village school at 10, and has since been employed for four years as a ploughboy on his master's farm, will be quite distanced in value, as an agricultural labourer, by the lad who comes fresh at the same age from the industrial training department of a workhouse school. I question also, if the domestic economy that is learnt amid circumstances of so large a scale will be of much use in after life to those whose every calculation and household arrangement will have to be adjusted to the smallest scale; whether the knowledge how to deal with articles of consumption in large quantities carries with it the knowledge how to manage them in smaller quantities; whether the habit of mind gained from such an experience is really the thrifty provident habit that knows how to make a little go a great way, or rather the extravagant wasteful habit that is generally engendered in those who have always been accustomed "*e magno tollere acervo.*" I know that people with small establishments shrink from engaging servants who have always lived in large establishments; and one principle seems to underlie both cases.

Its addition, a simple question of finance.

But even if the addition of an industrial department to every elementary school were abstractedly desirable, its impracticability is determined by the mere question of finance. It would be a most expensive adjunct. You may see one at work at Chardstock, and I believe at work successfully; but the Chardstock schools cost 1,800*l.* a year. It would be feasible, of course, if, according to the plan proposed by the Rev. H. Moule, of Fordington, our elementary schools were all converted into boarding schools, because each boarding house would supply the required materials for domestic training to its inmates. But, with school managers widely complaining that they can hardly supply the girls in their schools with needlework sufficient to occupy them for two hours in the afternoon of five days in the week, to attach a kitchen, a bakery, a laundry, a carpenter's shop, &c. to the buildings of an ordinary school in one of our rural villages, with its population of 300 or 400, would, as it seems to me, be simply a monument of their projector's folly. And, therefore, when persons speaking with the authority that belongs to experience, like Mr. Jelinger Symons, assert "in the most unqualified terms the increasing success of real industrial schools," cite the national schools at Hagley and Painswick, and the district school at Quatt, "as proofs that they are advocating no doubtful experiment, eulogizing no tentative theory, but a well tested and established success," I humbly beg to ask the simple question, whether the experiments on which they rely have not been tried under entirely exceptional and most favourable conditions; whether they mean, that, not in a favoured spot like Hagley, not in the midst of a population of some 3,000 as at

Painswick, not in establishments with such special features as the district school at Quatt or the reformatory school at Red Hill, but in an ordinary country parish, such as the 409 which it was my lot to traverse, anything like such a "success," as a general result, is even conceivable? With regard to the average duration of attendance, which is said to be considerably greater in such schools than in others, the experience derived from this inquiry does not enable me to make any positive assertion one way or the other. It is not likely to be less; but at Sherborne and Chardstock the experiment had not been long enough upon its trial; at East Coker, where it had been tried for some years, but at the time of my visit was in a state of suspended animation, the master, a very intelligent man, did not appear very enthusiastic about it generally, and certainly stated that he had not found it have the effect of keeping the children longer at school. I quite agree with Mr. Symons and everybody who insists upon the need of greater attention being paid in the schools to matters of practical use to the after life of the child; but this is quite a different question from the establishment of industrial departments, and one that I shall have a better opportunity of discussing when I come to the results of my inquiry as illustrating the comparative efficiency of schools. I quite admit, also, from what I have seen in such schools as that at Chardstock or the Hereford workhouse, that the time spent by the children on industrial work is not lost intellectually; that the skill, such as it is, that they attain in household work or gardening, is not purchased at the cost of any mental accomplishment; and that the moral tone of schools which combine industrial with intellectual training (though this is a somewhat delicate measurement to take) is to the full as healthy, perhaps healthier, than in schools which attempt to cultivate the intellectual powers alone. There is more cheerfulness, more freshness, and spring of spirits; and these alone are powerful antagonists to vice. But as the question into which I was instructed to inquire was, "how far such a system *generally adopted* would improve the schools of the children of the independent labourers," the preliminary point to be settled appeared to be, how far its general adoption is possible, what attempts are being made for its introduction; and I am bound frankly to express the conviction at which I have arrived, and on which I was glad to find myself supported by the high authority and sober judgment of the Dean of Hereford, that, as a regular element in the educational appliances of the ordinary village school, it is simply an impossibility, and that in the few instances where I observed anything like a serious trial of the experiment, it did not appear to be producing any marked results either on the character of the children or on the general condition of the school.

Doubtful if it would increase the average period of attendance.

Admitted advantages of industrial schools.

But their general adoption impracticable.

d. I met with no instance of an attempt to introduce the half-time principle into agricultural pursuits. Most persons conversant with the character of farm labour, and also with the temper of farmers, appeared to consider it as an impracticable theory. No one had ever dreamt of trying it. Even in the case of chil-

No instance met with of a "half-time" system at work in any case of children employed on farms.

dren employed in factories, and who come under the operation of the Act of Parliament—as at Axminster, Lyme, and Sherborne—the arrangements made for the instruction of the half-time scholars did not seem very satisfactory; the compliance with the terms of the Act (as far as I could ascertain, which was a matter of considerable difficulty,) appeared to be nominal rather than substantial; and as the number of such scholars, as compared with the bulk of the school, was in all the cases insignificant, and the instruction of the classes went on continuously while they were absent on the alternate days, so that they missed in fact just half of what is taught in each subject, I doubt whether the system can work very advantageously either for them or the rest of the school. The case is removed into entirely different conditions, if, as probably happens in purely manufacturing localities, the children come in relays to school, as they go in relays to work. You then have to do with two sets of children entirely distinguished, and the continuity of the instruction of each set is not interrupted. But this is not at all parallel to the case of a small manufacturing element intermingled with the ordinary constituents of a rural school. I can only say that the system was not giving satisfaction either to the managers or the school teachers in the few places where it professedly was being tried. The small extra amount of attendance which it secured did not compensate for the element of disturbance which it introduced into the school.

Doubtful efficacy of legislative enactments, even if passed.

The remedy of compulsory legislative enactments, prohibiting the employment of juvenile labour below a certain age universally, or laying parents under a legal obligation to provide for the education of their children, had evidently not occurred to the minds of any person with whom I conversed upon the subject, as possible. Unless such enactment were accompanied by better provisions for securing the efficiency of schools than are to be found in the Factory Acts, its operations would be simply nugatory. "A bad school," says Mr. Inspector Mitchell, with too much truth, "is a great curse." And "bad schools," it must be remembered, or at any rate schools that are far below the standard of efficiency, at present constitute the majority. I do not myself think that we should be much better off than we are now under a freer and (to our habits and notions) more congenial system. In the Union of Sherborne I have already shown (Table VI.) that, with schools still very imperfectly developed, we have nearly reached the Prussian and Danish standard of one sixth of the population at school. And though in the document I have before me (Mr. Kay's paper on the comparative condition of children in English and foreign towns*) there are no figures to indicate what the writer or his informants mean by "regular daily attendance," I presume, from the nature of the case, that the continental child's school-life must be interrupted by the same causes—sickness, weather, want of shoes, domestic circumstances—that so largely affect the question here. From all that I have seen, I am

* Essays on Educational Subjects, p. 77, foll.

satisfied that the problem may be solved and the knot cut (as far as any two people in England will ever agree to cut a knot in the same way) by increasing the efficiency of the schools; perhaps also, as I shall have occasion to repeat hereafter, by a redistribution of the ordinary school hours.

I did not find that it was the practice to make it an express condition of the parent's hiring, that his master shall have a claim also on the labour of his children; but there is no doubt that the agricultural labourer is, generally, in a state of great dependence, especially where cottages, as is often the case, are let with the farms; and that the condition, though not expressed, is commonly considered on both sides as implied. It is true that the parents are seldom reluctant to see their children employed at the earliest possible age; but if, in any case, a father wishes, and could afford, to give his son another twelve months' schooling, while the boy's labour at the same time is wanted on the farm, there can be no question which interest would have to give way.

There can be no doubt also that the education of the elder children, at least of the elder girls, suffers by comparison with that of the younger. I continually observed elder girls in the lower classes of schools, who had been kept at home in their proper school days to "nurse the baby," or "mind the house," while the mother was in the fields, and now were making up for lost time as they best could. Scholars of this kind, too, are frequent in the private dames' schools, where the classification is less strict, and they perhaps feel more comfortable, from the sense that there are fewer eyes and ears open to mark their deficiencies. Elder children are put to a further disadvantage by the earlier age, in cases where a family comes on fast, at which they are sent to work, and required to contribute something to the maintenance of the household. When the size of the family has arrived at its maximum, and the younger children have reached the educational age, this particular pressure is no longer felt, and the juniors have at any rate this one chance more.

e. I did not learn that any of the prize schemes which were organized within the area to which my inquiry was limited contemplated long attendance at school, as distinct from a certain measure of mental attainment, as an object for reward, though the requirement of a certain age and a certain period of attendance at school, as a condition of being allowed to compete for a prize,—in the case of the Honiton prize scheme, which I believe has the merit of being the first that was tried in a purely agricultural district, the age being fixed at ten, and the period of attendance at school six months,—must naturally have an influence proportionate to the value in which the prizes themselves are held for. But these prize schemes only affect the *best* schools, which have already solved the problem, and can not only attract but out-energies their scholars, by more solid and sterling inducements. Access or inferior schools, where the evil really is pressing, have been instances premium at all. The competitors for the prizes offered in many Honiton Board on the first occasion came from eight townments

An implied, but not an express condition of hiring, that the employer has a claim on children's labour.

Educational disadvantages of elder children compared with younger.

Attendance at school very slightly affected by prize schemes.

local and city.

Question raised as to their stability and usefulness.

only; and though here and there in Herefordshire I came across a school, as at Much Marcle and Bosbury, which could point with pride to scholars who had distinguished themselves in the diocesan examination, to the great mass of schools in the county—to nine tenths of them—the scheme was, as it were, an influence entirely external to their orbit. Indeed, on more general grounds, I must confess that I entirely share the doubts expressed by one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, whose opinions always carry with them great weight, the Rev. M. Mitchell, as to both the stability and usefulness of these schemes. With regard to the former, he is sure that people will soon "become tired of subscribing money for such a purpose,"*—a conviction that will be shared by every one who has any knowledge of the sum required to carry out such a scheme adequately, and then compares that with the funds usually at the disposal of a diocesan board,—in the instance of that of Hereford about 120*l.* a year for all purposes; while as to their usefulness, Mr. Mitchell considers that "one of the chief advantages derived to the progress of education in the present day has been the doing away with all these factitious aids," and "the making a boy value his education for itself, and not for the paltry rewards of childhood, such as either places in the top of his class, medals, or books, the value of which in after years he learns completely to despise;" and "the best schools we have are those in which no such meretricious honours are conferred." I am not myself prepared to go the whole length of this last objection. I doubt whether men in after life do completely despise the prizes they won in their school days; I certainly can still look on my own with some feelings of satisfaction; and I think that it cannot be denied that a prize scheme must act as a stimulant. But it must be remembered that there are unhealthy stimulants as well as healthy ones; and it certainly does strike me, though I have not seen the objection urged, that a stimulant which shall tempt a teacher, as this one inevitably will, to push on his quicker and more forward boys with a view to distinction in a diocesan examination, to the neglect of the duller and less promising ones, is one of the most unhealthy, for the general well-being of the school, that it is possible to conceive. Gentlemen who allow their gardeners to compete for prizes given by horticultural societies generally complain that their table is very meagrely supplied with the ordinary and useful fruits and vegetables. It would be poor compensation for the discomfort of having to eat bad peas and indifferent potatoes, to hear that we have gained the first prize for pineapples or hothouse grapes. Yet the latter is the kind of produce to which prize schemes tempt our educational gardeners to devote their whole time; a grateful luxury, perhaps, I presume not an absolute test of good cultivation. The best school, I think, is not that which can produce a few fine specimens of sickness,

largely affect

Instructional Subjects, read at the Educational Conference, June 1857,

precocious talent, but that which can point to the most equitable array of honest attainment, the fruit of honest pains; but this is a result which, as far as I can see the tendency of their operation, prize schemes are in no likelihood to promote. It is quite certain that at present they only affect the good schools; and therefore their influence is most felt where it is least needed. The contagion of emulation, I am afraid, spreads a very little way.

There is a prize scheme at work in the diocese of Bath and Wells, and therefore including within its sphere part of the area traversed by this inquiry, which is novel in its principle, and free in its practical effects from the chief objection that I have raised to the more usual *modus operandi*. This scheme certifies and rewards the *masters*, not the *pupils*. The local Inspector reports to the Bishop's central Inspector the names of the two best schools in his district: this latter officer then visits the schools, and, by his judgment of their comparative efficiency, the claims of the teachers are determined for a prize. This scheme has a direct tendency to promote, what the other scheme has a direct tendency to diminish, attention on the part of the teacher to the thorough efficiency of every department of his school. Even the prizes for needlework are bestowed, not on the girls who have cut out or made the shirt, but on the sewing-mistress who taught them. There is less *éclat*, less excitement, about this scheme than the other; but it seems to me to be very sensibly devised, and, though no instance of its results came under my own observation, Mr. Vaughan, the diocesan inspector, informed me that it was working very successfully, and had already in his judgment given a great impetus to the improvement of schools. It has at least the advantage of administering the stimulant to the proper party.

f. The demand for education appears to be very slightly influenced by considerations arising out of the payment or non-payment of school fees. As a general rule, the attendance at schools where fees are paid is better than at schools where the education is gratuitous; but this fact is simply owing, I think, to the superiority of the discipline, and in some cases to the teacher's salary depending partly on the children's pence, and his having in that circumstance an inducement to enforce attendance and repress truancy. To the endowed schoolmaster it is a matter of comparative indifference whether the school is full, and children regular or not; the state of his school depends almost entirely on his conscientiousness, and on his power to attract. In some of the endowed free schools, as in that kept by Mr. Bryers at Dorchester, the regularity of the attendance cannot be surpassed—in others the entire state of things is most deplorable. That the fact of an endowment, especially if considerable, and supposed to be held for life, or if inconsiderable, and therefore requiring to be eked out as a livelihood by other means, has a tendency to relax the energies of the teacher, and to make him indifferent to the success or failure of his school, cannot be disputed. I have seen instances enough in which it has directly had this influence; and in many places the friends of education consider that the endowments¹⁻

Special feature
of the Bath and
Wells prize
scheme.

Demand for
education, how
far affected by
school-fees.

local
and
ity.

the schools are positive hindrances to the work, instead of aids. But there are instances also on the other side; so that it is impossible to make a general statement, and each case must be judged on its own merits.

The scale of them might probably be raised; and it would be a great improvement if they were paid quarterly.

No objections are raised on the part of parents to the payment of a moderate school fee. A penny a week is the general rate; but from what is paid in several public schools, and in almost every private school, by parents of the same grade, I am convinced that this rate might be doubled, and the school income largely increased, without creating any dissatisfaction. In one instance—at Much Dewchurch, in Herefordshire—I found the scale unusually high. Out of 49 children, 8 were paying sixpence a month; 18, tenpence; 22, one and eightpence, and one two shillings; and these were mostly the children of labourers. But this scale is manifestly extravagant, introduced probably as a test how far the school may be made self-supporting, and will certainly have to be modified. It would be a great improvement, however, on the system of school fees, if the payments were made monthly; or, still greater, if quarterly, instead of weekly. The weekly payment has this difficulty about it. If a child is unavoidably kept from school, perhaps only for a single day, at the beginning of the week, the whole week is often lost, because the parent does not think it worth while to pay the fee, on which, of course, from its amount, no discount can be given, for four days' schooling; so that if a child is absent on Monday or Tuesday, it is ten to one if the master sees his face again till the following Monday.

This difficulty, which is not felt in the free schools, would be certainly obviated if the payments were for longer periods, *in advance*; and I am persuaded that a considerable reduction might be made in consideration of possible contingencies; *e. g.* a shilling, or even tenpence, a quarter, instead of a penny a week, or one shilling and ninepence a quarter, instead of twopence a week; and the school income still be a large gainer by the change. Having had eight years' experience of the system in my own parochial school, I ventured to advocate its adoption whenever I had the opportunity.

Attendance of children affected by parents' inability to provide decent clothing.

g. Whenever parents pleaded their inability to pay the school fee, as an excuse for the non-attendance of their children at school, I was certain, on further inquiry, to find that it was not the true account of the case. The difficulty of providing them with decent clothing, particularly with shoes and warm wraps in the winter months, is, no doubt, keenly felt, and here and there, when the children are young, the weather bad, the roads muddy, and the school perhaps a mile or two away, the inability assumes proportions which every candid inquirer would allow to be fairly insurmountable. In some few places also—as at Lopen in Somersetshire, and in several parishes in the Union of Bromyard—there is an absolute deficiency (of which at the first-named place very bitter complaints were made) of school accommodation. Ragged schools do not exist in rural districts. I only heard of one in my territory, at Chard, and that had died a natural death; and, there-

fore that door is not open to those who allege the difficulty of getting decent clothing.

For the education of the children of persons receiving out-door relief, the number of whom may be estimated from the following Table, compiled from a Return of the Poor Law Board, dated 1st January 1858, Education of children of out-door paupers.

Name of Place.	Out-door Pauper Children under 16. Able-bodied.	Out-door Pauper Children under 16. not Able-bodied.	Total.
Sherborne - - - -	197	90	287
Dorchester - - - -	247	187	434
Cerne - - - -	96	67	163
Beaminster - - - -	192	253	445
Axminster - - - -	260	224	484
Chard - - - -	305	210	515
Yeovil - - - -	434	152	586
Hereford and Dore - - - - }	297	107	404
Dore - - - - }	55	50	105
Ross - - - -	152	164	316
Leominster - - - -	160	68	228
Bromyard - - - -	94	101	195
Ledbury - - - -	182	77	259
Upton-on-Severn - - - -	392	79	471
Totals - - - -	3,063	1,829	4,892

I did not meet with a single instance of provision being made by the guardians of the several Unions. Yet I believe that the children are as generally under instruction as the children of non-pauper parents. In one parish only—St. Weonard's, Ross Union—did I hear of a number of children in this category, who in consequence could not, or did not, come to school. It shows that the school fee cannot be a just ground for non-attendance, when somehow or other parents even of this, the lowest class of the population, contrive to pay it. I do not believe that in any parish in my district the guardians, as such, use their influence, or consider it part of their duty to use their influence, over the parents to enforce the education of the children. They do not feel very strongly on the subject as employers, and still less so as guardians. I am happy to add, however, on the other hand, that I never met with a case—once, I believe, not infrequent—of the ability of a parent to pay for the schooling of his child being made a negative test of his fitness to receive out-door relief.

No provision made for them by boards of guardians.

h. As I have said that the non-attendance of children in some cases is to be accounted for by the deficiency of school accommodation, this seems the proper place for remarking that the supply of schools, and particularly of efficient schools, is still very unequally distributed. I hardly know what is meant by a "rich parish" or a "poor parish," as in every parish (as one sees from the overseers' book) there is a certain amount of annual income going into somebody's pocket, which on all principles of responsi-

Defective supply of schools accounted for by defective supply of local interest and liberality.

Especially of
non-resident
proprietors.

bility stands bound, as with a first charge, by certain duties to the place from which it is derived. *The* fact that makes all the difference in the educational, and almost in every other condition of a parish, is the residence of the owners of the land; or, at least, this combined with the energy and zeal of the parochial clergyman. Where the proprietor does not live, there, to a very great extent, he does not spend; and many an owner of property, who is quoted as a benefactor to his kind in the neighbourhood in which he resides, is shabby and niggardly to an extent that is inconceivable towards a parish whose only claim upon him is that he carries off its great tithes or owns half or all its land. The "poor parish," in far the majority of cases, is that which is out of sight, and therefore out of mind. The school is a picturesque feature on the outskirts of the park; it is an expected feature—one which visitors will like to see, and will be sure to ask after—in the village adjacent to the hall; and there of course it stands, is tolerably cared for, and duly admired. But rare indeed are the instances of landowners who, wherever they have property, seem to feel it a first duty to do something for the social and moral elevation of the people. Rare are examples like that of Mr. Digby, of Sherborne Castle, who is buying land largely in all directions in Dorsetshire, and whose acquisitions you may almost trace, as you travel from parish to parish, by the restored churches, new schools, rebuilt parsonages, repaired farmhouses, improved cottages,—every token, in fact, of a well-administered liberality; or of Col. Wyndham, of Petworth, whose first act on purchasing an estate at Much Cowarne, in Herefordshire, was to put down his name for 300*l.* to build a new school, and to promise 20*l.* a year for its support. I am quite aware that all landowners cannot afford to do what these large-hearted gentlemen are doing; but many, very many, who have the power seem to me to be lamentably insensible to the duty. Think of a duke, owning all the property in a parish, the rateable value of which is upwards of 2,500*l.*, yet not subscribing a sixpence to the school, the whole cost of which has to be borne by a clergyman, with seven children, whose living is barely a net 400*l.* a year! Think of a general in the army and a Member of Parliament, who may therefore be presumed to be a man with a competency, drawing 1,200*l.* a year from a parish—400*l.* of it in great tithes—and saying that he could not promise anything regularly to the school,—as though a school could be maintained in a state of efficiency on irregular promises! Think of a nobleman of great wealth, and of opinions favourable to the elevation of the poorer classes, in return for an income of 2,000*l.* a year accruing from a parish, remitting three guineas' subscription to the school, with the bitter jest accompanying it, "You know I let you have your premises rent-free, and I consider that worth another 20*l.* a year!" Think of another peer contributing 35*l.* a year to the support of the school in the parish where his mansion stands, and in the very next parish, from which he is said to derive an income of 4,000*l.* a year, and which has twice the population, limiting his liberality to a sub-

scription of 5*l.*—just one seventh of the amount! Think elsewhere of a proprietor of 1,500*l.* a year subscribing 3*l.* to the school, but (that he may not be out of pocket) receiving back 3*l.* 10*s.* as rent for the room in which it is held! Think of the united subscriptions of the landowners in a parish of 8,000 acres of the best land in Herefordshire, whose rental must be at least 12,000*l.* a year, two of them peers of the realm, and one a very wealthy peer, amounting to 18*l.*; the cost of the school meanwhile (which is one of the largest and best in Herefordshire) being upwards of 100*l.* a year, and the poor incumbent being driven forth among his personal friends, quite unconnected with the parish, to make up the deficiency.

These are some of the most flagrant cases; but they are not all, or indeed, half, of what I could have adduced. The heart of many an earnest clergyman is almost broken by the utter apathy, sometimes by the utter silence—his letters not being so much as even answered—with which his applications for aid are received. The voice of complaint is loud and general; and from what I ascertained, there are grounds enough for its being so. There is so much talking on the subject of education by people who often do so little actually to promote it, that I think the public mind in general has very imperfect notions of the persons by whom the burden of our elementary schools is chiefly borne. I shall reserve what I have to say further upon the point till I come more directly to speak of the financial state of schools.

i. One would, indeed, expect beforehand, that the supply of schools would be unequally distributed, when one bears in mind that there are hardly any two parishes in which all the conditions required for the successful prosecution of the work are actually combined. Here, a parish belongs wholly to one large indifferent landowner; there, as at Stockland, Merriott, Bishop's Frome, South Petherton, the land is parcelled out among a great number of small proprietors, none of them rich, and hardly able to be liberal, even if they were disposed. Here, the landowner is indifferent, because not resident; there, though resident, he thinks 5*l.* or 10*l.* a year enough, and more than enough, to support the school. Here, you have an earnest clergyman, but without the special qualities to throw life into the management of a school; there, an injudicious man who cannot work well with, or enlist the sympathies of, his parishioners. Sometimes, under the pressure of a small living and a large family, he is well nigh bankrupt in purse; at other times, though not often, he is bankrupt in character. In some parishes there is no inducement to spend much upon the school, from the early age at which children are taken away to glove, to braid, to make lace; in others, the population is broken up among scattered hamlets, too small to support each a school of its own, and too distant from any central point to profit by a common school. No doubt these are great difficulties; and to men, content to speculate *how* the wheel is to be turned, instead of manfully putting their shoulder to it, they seem insuperable.

The importance of this fact not sufficiently estimated.

Different circumstances of different parishes affect the supply of education.

The effect is that, though you can point to scores of parishes in which precisely the same difficulties exist, and in which, by resolute energetic action they have been overcome, I still found throughout my district far too many parishes in which there is no public school at all, and far more in which the school that exists is, for any useful purpose, quite undeserving of the name.

Nowhere a superabundance of supply of a really good article.

I did not, however, anywhere note a redundancy in the supply—any neighbourhood, I mean, in which the outlay on the school was disproportionately large for the work it professed to do, (unless, perhaps, I were to except the two endowed schools at Luckton and Hanley Castle; and those were originally intended to be semi-classical schools, with exhibitions at the university,) nor many in which the school accommodation was more than adequate to the local requirements. New schools, no doubt, are arising in some localities more rapidly than in others; but the same thing may be said of new farms or new cottages; and nowhere are they being built where they are not needed—nowhere, where, if efficiently conducted, they will not be filled. And though I have been sometimes vexed to see so much money wasted on flimsy and unsuitable ornamentation, while structural points of the highest importance have been most imperfectly attended to, and have too often felt the bitter disappointment of finding no jewel within the casket, no real light streaming into children's minds through some of those elaborate window-traceries, but the school merely a handsome sham; I could not discover in any place, that the supply was either premature or preposterous, and the good schools everywhere are invariably prosperous and full.

Financial condition of schools.

V. In connexion with the supply of education, seems to be the proper place for speaking of the financial condition of schools. The ordinary sources of a school's income are the pence paid by the children, amounting on the average to about 6*l.* a year for every 40 children, and voluntary contributions, which vary indefinitely. In many schools there is a further ordinary source of income in an endowment, which is more or less fixed; and in the few schools that are under certificated and registered teachers in the capitation money, which is fluctuating. I have already said that the payment of school fees is not unpopular with parents, and that I think it may safely be raised beyond its present rate, which is usually 1*d.* per week. I have also given reasons for believing that it would be a great advantage, both to the school and to the parents, if it were made a quarterly instead of a weekly payment, and a payment in advance. In a few British schools, as at Dorchester and Ross, I found the rate of fee depending on the subjects taught, a regulation which I had fancied was almost obsolete in public schools, though it still obtains extensively in private ones. The better class of private elementary schools universally adopt the plan of quarterly payments, the rate varying from 6*s.* to 12*s.* per quarter. It is the rate of payment in the private schools, whose children come from the same rank in life as those in the public schools, and which is hardly ever less than 2*d.*,

Rate of school-fees might be raised.

frequently 3*l.*, a week, that makes me believe the fees could be raised in the latter, without creating, beyond the moment of the change, any dissatisfaction.

It would be wrong, perhaps, to say that schools are usually in debt, as I believe that there are rarely, if ever, any unsatisfied claims allowed to accumulate; but there is almost universally a considerable annual deficit, for which the treasurer—in most cases the parochial clergyman—is responsible. This is seldom less than 5*l.*, and, under the pressure of extraordinary expenditure, I have known it amount as high as 70*l.* Towards the enormous expenditure of the Chardstock schools, only 15*l.* is subscribed; the vicar bears the responsibility of any deficiency. At Combe St. Nicholas, the deficiency in 1857 was 72*l.*; at Merriott,* on the last two years' account, it was 114*l.*, and there is only 40*l.* subscribed to meet 160*l.*, the cost of a master's house; at Powerstock the deficiency is about 40*l.*; at Buckland St. Mary, 60*l.*; at Hardington Mandeville, 28*l.*; at Hoarwithy, 40*l.*; and in all these, and a hundred other less extreme cases, the burden has to be borne by the parochial clergyman. I was directed to ascertain, if possible in a tabular form, the sources of the voluntary contributions towards the expenses of the schools. I have done so, and have tabulated every complete return I got in a schedule which I have inserted in the Appendix.† It is well worth an attentive perusal by any one who really cares to know, in this matter of education, what class are bearing the burden and heat of the day. As the full table can be referred to, I will merely state here the general results.

The return in question has been received in a sufficiently complete state to be available from 168 parishes only, and shows the expenditure and the details of the voluntary contributions in support of 168 schools. The rateable value of the lands in these 168 parishes amounts to 508,895*l.*; the gross estimated rental may safely be reckoned at one-third more, or at least 650,000*l.* The total average annual cost of the 168 schools—though I suspect that the amount is understated, the sum named in some cases being only the salary of the teacher—is set down at 6,661*l.*, being an average of 39*l.* 6*s.* per school. To meet this expenditure there are voluntary contributions to the sum of 4,518*l.*, distributed as follows:—169‡ parochial clergymen contribute 1,782*l.*, or, on

Schools not actually in debt, though generally the accounts show a balance against the treasurer.

General results of the return exhibiting the proportion of voluntary contributions in 168 schools.

* In this large parish, with some of the finest land in Somersetshire, and a rateable value of 8,000*l.*, the property is very minutely subdivided, and great difficulty is found in raising subscriptions. Twenty-five landowners only contribute 15*l.* a year. The Dean and Chapter of Bristol draw the great tithes, and gave 5*l.* to make some alterations in the schoolroom, and 5*l.* towards the master's house, but nothing to the annual support of the school. South Petherton is a parallel case. Bishop's Frome, in Herefordshire, another. In the latter case there are 101 landowners to a rateable value of 3,935*l.* When the school was built, these landowners between them subscribed 35*s.*; to its maintenance they contribute nothing. There is an endowment of 15*l.* a-year; the rest of the expense is borne by the vicar.

† See Appendix iii., p. 132, foll.

‡ There are 169 parochial clergymen, though only 168 parochial schools, because the school at Maiden Newton is built jointly for the use of that parish and of Frome Vauchurch, and each clergyman subscribes to its support, and shares its management. Averages here, again, are no fair index of the actual state of the case, for they by no means represent the way in which the contributions are distributed, as a glance at the Tables themselves will show.

an average, 10*l.* 10*s.* each ; 399 landowners contribute 2,127*l.*, or an average of 5*l.* 6*s.* each ; 217 land occupiers contribute 200*l.*, or an average of 18*s.* 6*d.* each ; 102 householders contribute 181*l.*, or an average of 1*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.* each ; and the remaining 228*l.* is contributed by 141 other persons, who are for some reason or other interested in the school or the parish, though neither residing nor owning property there. So that it appears that an average subscribing clergyman contributes to the school expenditure 11 times as much as an average subscribing farmer, six times as much as an average subscribing householder, and (with probably not half the income), nearly twice as much as an average subscribing landowner. And even now the case is incompletely stated ; for, while it is the rarest thing in the world to meet with a parish of which the clergyman does not subscribe to the school, it would be very far from the truth to say that it is a rare thing to meet with a non-subscribing landowner ; and it will be observed that there are only 399 landowners subscribing on behalf of property whose gross rental, at a moderate estimate, must be 650,000*l.* a year ; so that unless we are prepared to admit that each landowner possesses a property of the average value of 1,600*l.* a year, which is not at all likely, there must be a large number of landowners—I should think probably not less than 200—in this area of England, to whom the school in the parish from which they derive their income is a simple matter of unconcern. I would call particular attention to the cases (as shown in the Tables) of Piddletown, Toller Porcorum, Winterborne Abbas, Winterborn St. Martin, Buckland Newton, Cattistock, Chesilbourne, Broadwindsor, Netherbury, Marshwood, Axmouth, Combe St. Nicholas, Merriott, West Coker, Martock, South Petherton, Tintinhull, Hampton Bishop, Hentland, Llangarren, St. Weonards, Bodenham, Kingsland, Stoke Prior, Cradley, and Much Marcle ; for they seem to me very extreme and very flagrant. In some of these, as Cattistock, Buckland Newton, Axmouth, Combe St. Nicholas, Merriott, Hentland, Cradley, and Much Marcle, there are excellent schools, which may be said to owe their existence entirely to the energy and sacrifices of the clergy ; in others, as Piddletown, Toller Porcorum, Broadwindsor, Marshwood, West Coker, Tintinhull, Hampton Bishop, Llangarren, St. Weonard's, Kingsland, and Stoke Prior, there is urgent need for improvement, which in most cases the clergy feel acutely, but are not in a position to attempt themselves, while they are unable to excite the necessary interest in others. One per cent. would not surely be an extravagant deodand to levy on property for the maintenance of a school, and one per cent. on 650,000*l.* a year would produce 6,500*l.*, a sum nearly equal to the returned expenditure of these 169 schools, and more than treble of what this income actually contributes to this end.

Sacrifices
demanded from
the clergy.

Indeed, even with the case thus stated, the pecuniary sacrifices of the clergy to the cause of education have not received their full appreciation. I have not attempted to balance them against the size of their families, or the value of their livings, too minute a

detail for my present purpose, but necessary before we can form a just estimate. But the eye should at least travel down the last column in the Tables, and observe in how many instances the deficiency in the annual income of the school is made up by the clergyman; and by noticing the individual cases of Combe St. Nicholas, Merriott, or Martock, a notion will be formed of the dimensions which this deficiency sometimes assumes. A neighbour of mine told me not a week ago that his school accounts on the last six years show a debt of 140*l.* "to the treasurer." A statement, in which this item is duly set down, is annually sent to each subscriber, but the fact makes no impression on the subscription. The covenanted two, three, or five pounds figure precisely in their usual places, and opposite the old names, as though the account were "in equilibrio," and the fate of the poor treasurer with his 140*l.* of debt is perhaps never so much as speculated upon, as though he were some purely mythic being with an unlimited capacity for bearing liabilities.

The position of the farmers or land occupiers in relation to the support of schools (as illustrated by the same Tables) is not more satisfactory, though it is less surprising. For, at present they have hardly taken the bearings of the question; and I doubt whether the duty of supporting their share of the burden as parties largely interested in the social improvement of the labourer, has been pressed upon them with much patience or much adroitness. The farmer is not illiberal; he is as warm-hearted and hospitable as most other Englishmen; but he has as yet very little notion of almsgiving, and is not much in the habit of making cash payments, except to pay rent or tithe. His incomings are mostly in money; his outgoings in kind. He probably has some sort of "set off" against most of his tradesmen's bills; he satisfies his way-rate by a kind of voluntary "corvée;" he thinks his nag-horses cost him nothing because he grows his own oats and beans, and that his housekeeping is a trifle because he lives on the produce of the farm. His labour is paid for in driblets, so that he is hardly conscious of the sum it mounts to in a year. His whole experience is of an expenditure which has been going out all through the year imperceptibly, returning to him at harvest in one full golden tide. It is not wonderful, therefore, if men bred in these habits of mind appear to be illiberal. It is not wonderful if, when bluffly asked to subscribe to the school, they make some excuse for declining. It is not surprising either, if some of the prejudices against real enlightening education, which 15 years ago were nearly universal, should still be found lingering among the farmers. There has not been much done to prepossess them in its favour; for they, like the middle class generally, have entirely been overlooked in the efforts that have been made to improve the condition of English schools. I am not speaking of the large capitalist farmers, who can afford to send, and who do send, their sons to schools of as high a character as the King's school at Sherborne, or the cathedral school at Hereford; but those to whom 20*l.* or 25*l.* a year represents the sum they are prepared

Attitude of the farmers.

to lay out on the education of a child. I met a farmer in the neighbourhood of Chard, a tenant of 500 acres of land under Lord Bridport, who felt very strongly, and spoke very strongly (for he had nine children) about there being absolutely no decent school within reach suitable to his means, where he could have his family educated. You can hardly expect men, who have this difficulty in providing education for themselves, to feel very keenly the necessity of providing it for their labourers. Yet, looking down my Tables, I observe many parishes in which there are farmers subscribing, each his guinea a year, to the elementary school. At Poyntington, Long Bredy, Bradford Peverell, Axmouth, Combe St. Nicholas, Haselbury, Merriott, Montacute, Holmer, Mordiford, Monkland, Yarpole, Cradley, Whitbourne, Ashperton, and elsewhere, they exhibit a liberality that will bear comparison with that of the landowners. "I am a farmers' man, you know," said to me the indefatigable vicar of Powerstock in Dorsetshire, in whose parish one farmer had given the site, valued at 200*l.*, for the school, and who then told me that he thought that he knew eleven men, each prepared to place 100*l.* in his hands, if he could only see his way to the establishment of a good middle school. And I suspect that if more of us who have the management of schools were "farmers' men," entered a little more into their feelings, and quietly reasoned them out of their not unnatural prejudices, we should get their sympathy and assistance oftener than we do.

Farmers
beginning to
appreciate
educated
labourers.

For I believe that the farmers, as a class, are beginning to see the superiority of the educated labourer. There may be some in the class still, with the feelings of a Virginian cotton planter, who would rather have their lands cultivated by slaves; but they are the exception, not the rule.* I had an opportunity of being introduced to the Chard Board of Guardians, composed almost entirely of farmers, and they to a man repudiated the notion that they preferred uneducated workpeople. The scientific methods of cultivation require more knowledge and intelligence in the cultivator. And I must do Boards of Guardians justice by appreciating the quality of the education given in the workhouses which are under their control. With the exception of the workhouse at Ross, over which, in all its departments, the spell of some malignant influence seemed brooding, and that at Bromyard, where there were not above five children to be educated, and matters were wretched enough, all the Union schools which I visited were highly creditable to the judgment and liberality of the managers; some of them quite types, which many a parish school would do well to follow.† I confess from what I saw and

* Twice in the course of my inquiry I heard of farmers saying that "uneducated labourers made the best slaves." Once it was in Dorsetshire; the other time in Worcestershire. In the latter case, the clergyman, to whom the remark was made, not inaptly replied, "Perhaps they do: but you see you do not want them as slaves; you have machinery for that, and you want intelligent human labour to drive the slave." The reply was unanswerable.

† At Chard, there was an appearance of depression about the children. But I attributed this to the gloominess of the rooms in which they were taught and the yards in which they played.

heard, and though I admit the existence of great indifference in some parishes, and even of active opposition in a few, that still I am ready to proclaim myself, with the vicar of Powertock, "a farmers' man," and have good hopes that, before many years are passed, we shall find them all appreciating the benefits of education, and enlisting heartily in its cause.*

As things, however, stand at the present moment, it certainly is a matter of serious concern that the financial condition of our schools, on which so much of their essential well-being depends, rests on so narrow a basis of liberality and zeal. But under any voluntary system it must be always so. The niggardness and narrow-mindedness of the many finds a cloak and an excuse in the free-heartedness of the few. The man who gives most already, is always the man who is ready to give more. And perhaps our schools thrive better on these free-will offerings, than they would on extorted or reluctant doles; for they have loving hearts now interested in their welfare, and that is even more necessary for their prosperity than liberal hands.

The financial condition of town schools differs from that of country schools, mainly in this, that they are supported by small sums from many givers, instead of by comparatively large sums from few givers. Thus, the British school at Ross received, in the year 1858, contributions to the amount of 63*l.* 17*s.* from 108 subscribers. The boys' day school in St. Peter's parish, Hereford, 22*l.* 10*s.* from 38 subscribers; the infant school in St. Owen's parish, 25*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*, from 58 subscribers; the National school at Dorchester 59*l.*, from 92 subscribers. The base is broader, and there is less chance of a sudden collapse in town schools, a misfortune that one has so often to lament in country schools, where the death or emigration of perhaps a single supporter is fatal to their continued efficiency; sometimes, as in the case of the parochial school at Berrow, to their very existence. In no instance that I remember did there appear to be any serious difficulty in raising funds in the towns. But even there, the interest in education is very partially diffused, and, as may be calculated from the preceding figures, the individual subscriptions are very small.

I hope that your Grace and the Commissioners will not think that I have dwelt too long upon this topic. It seemed to me to be very important, and one upon which the public mind is very imperfectly informed. In contemplating philanthropic enterprises we are often lavish enough of barren praise, but are too heedless to inquire who bears the burden, and never dream of moving it ourselves with so much as one of our fingers.

* At Buckland Newton, I understood, from Archdeacon Gunning, that, though the farmers had not subscribed to the erection of the school, they had promised to raise a voluntary rate of 2*l.* a year to its support, and I hope they have kept their word. The case of the farmers at King's Somborne is well known (Minutes of Committee of Council, 1856-7, p. 472). In the neglected parish of Charminster, I was told that the farmers in vestry had expressed themselves strongly in favour of a school, but drew back when asked what they were prepared to contribute to the work. The fact is explicable on principles I have stated, and certainly they had no example before them to stir them to liberality.

The mode of education.

1. The government of schools.

VI. Having thus stated the evidence furnished by my district, as to the supply and demand of education and the financial condition of schools, I proceed to speak of the mode of education; and

1. Of the government of schools. The theoretical government of schools is very different from the practical. Nominally and legally in all schools which have received building-money from the Lords of the Privy Council, the management of the school is vested in a committee; but they rarely act as a committee, and the constitution is practically inoperative. The committee reigns, but it does not govern. The legislative and executive functions generally devolve upon an individual, the secretary or the treasurer, who in most cases is the parochial clergyman. Indeed, in the country parishes the schools may be said to be under the sole control of the clergy, unless it happens to be a school supported by some resident landowner, who retains the legislative power in his own hands, though often delegating the executive to the clergyman. Schools of which the committee appointed by the trust-deed actually undertake the superintendence, on the principle, I suppose, that what is everybody's business ends in being nobody's business, do not appear to thrive. I have seen signal instances of this. The master of a British school accounted for a want of readiness which his boys showed in answering questions, by saying that they hardly ever had anybody but himself to catechize them; and when I asked if the committee did not occasionally look in upon the school he replied, "Oh yes, but they are only visits of form." The very superior condition of the schools at Dorchester, Sherborne, and the Blue Coat and Scudamore schools at Hereford, besides the fact that they are under excellent teachers, I attribute also to the circumstance that they are under individual superintendence; that there are earnest-hearted living beings, not the cold abstraction—a committee, watching over their welfare; in Dorchester and Sherborne, the parochial clergy; in Hereford, the Dean.

Teachers do not dislike superintendence.

I am sure that teachers do not resent or dislike superintendence when it is judicious and kindly. No doubt they hate a meddling interference, and hate it cordially; and there are some persons who have the unhappy art of putting every one with whom they deal in the reverse position of that of ease. But, as a general rule, I found a remarkably good understanding existing between school managers and school teachers; and I much more frequently heard regrets expressed by the latter that they did not see more of the former, than that they saw too much of them. The visit of a friendly manager to the school is always hailed with pleasure both by teachers and children. By the very tone and aspect of a school, before asking any question, you can at once tell whether those visits are frequent or rare. I augured well for a school, before examining it, when, on my entering the room before 10 o'clock A.M., I found the squire's lady, the curate, and the churchwarden,—a plain, homely, farmer,—awaiting my arrival. I rarely in other places got a companion, except the clergyman, and not always him.

The local management of schools, in cases where the aid of the Committee of Council on Education has been invoked, is by the very terms on which that aid is granted, considerably influenced by the system of central inspection. Diocesan or local inspection though a valuable collateral aid, and (as far as I could see) working in perfect harmony with the State system, produces less effect, because the local inspector has no power of enforcing his recommendations. It is, of course, less stimulating also, because he does not come into the schoolroom, so to speak, with his pocket full of money. Infinitely less depends upon his judgment, both as regards the character of the school and its financial condition. Indeed, so much depends upon the report of the State inspector, that the stimulus is almost too great for the nerves of some teachers, particularly of mistresses; and a great weight seems taken off their spirits when the day of his visit is past. But this is the inevitable consequence of the relative position of the parties; and though I heard complaints now and then of an inspection having been so hurried as almost to have turned the poor teacher's head, it is very rarely indeed that I heard an allegation of want of consideration or impatience of temper.

The feelings, however, of many school managers, in reference both to local and central inspection, are very strange, and sometimes quite unaccountable. They are generally (when of this character) based upon entire misconception. Thus, one gentleman had an idea that the Government would not allow religious teaching in schools; another thought that they thrust upon managers their own methods of teaching, and their own books. In four adjacent parishes in Dorsetshire the objections were successively these:—In No. 1, the lord and the squire who own the land and built the school, think it unbecoming their position as men of wealth to ask the State for any aid; the one will do what the other does, so they subscribe 5*l.* apiece to the school, and object to its being placed under Government. In No. 2 the school is entirely supported by a very liberal gentleman, who does not require Government help; but his school in its present state is very far from what it might be, or what I should expect in a school of my own in return for an expenditure of 50*l.* a year. In No. 3 the squire built the school at his own cost, on the express understanding with the clergyman that it should not be placed under Government; and the clergyman is not at all anxious that it should be, as he does not wish to be interfered with. In No. 4, an important and populous place, the school is deprived of all the advantages of State aid, which it very much needs, because the nobleman who gave the building (an old barn of no great value), and subscribes 5*l.* a year to the funds, has decided objections to it. I think it is sometimes forgotten who are the victims of these "crotchets."

Many earnest members of nonconformist denominations refuse the aid of Government because they think that it interferes with the integrity of their cherished voluntary system, and hence important schools, like the British schools at Dorchester and

Chard, are placed at considerable disadvantage. The Baptist minister, however, at Dorchester told me that he could not understand the objection, and thought (to use his own words) that "the Dissenters were cutting their own throats" by it. That it is far from being a generally felt objection the number of denominational schools that are under inspection is sufficient to prove.

Feelings of a few clergy.

A similar kind of objection, viz., that the State has no business to meddle with education, is operative among a few, a very few, of the clergy. I met with two instances, but only two, in which the admission of myself, as for the nonce a representative of the State, into the school was refused on these grounds, though I was assured at the same time that the schools were perfectly open to me personally as a mere stranger, and I am quite certain that no discourtesy was intended.

Influence of Government upon local zeal.

I have not been able to ascertain with any completeness, so as to state in figures, the ratio of increase or diminution in the voluntary subscriptions for educational purposes in my district, during the period in which the system of the Committee of Privy Council has been developed; but I am quite satisfied that the prospect or the act of receiving Government aid has not repressed local liberality. The sums spent on inspected schools, the salaries of the teachers, the cost of the fittings, books, apparatus, are far higher than in uninspected schools. The whole establishment is on a more generous scale. There is more pride felt in maintaining its full efficiency.

The Government system not complained of as interfering with local management.

I never once heard it mentioned as a grievance that the terms on which Government grants are made interfere with the independent management of the school. I mean, that I never met with managers who complained, as of a fact, that it *did*; I found people who entertained à priori apprehensions that it *would*. In one case the managers seemed a little restive; but I think it was more a personal matter between them and an inspector than any objection to principles. The battle cry about trust deeds, which once resounded so far and wide, has ceased to be heard. There is an occasional grumble about boarded floors (though I believe the necessity for these is not now made absolute); but the improvement is generally admitted when they have been laid down. The requirements that the school shall be in a certain state of efficiency; that a certain proportion of its income shall arise from voluntary subscriptions; that the teacher's salary shall not be below a certain minimum; that the extent to which the advantages of the school are appreciated, as tested by the regularity of attendance, shall determine the amount of the capitation grant; that the arrangements and fittings shall be such as experience has proved to be necessary for the maintenance of discipline and order; and that the school doors shall be open once a year to an officer deputed to see that these requirements are fulfilled, are felt to be not onerous or unreasonable conditions of aid, at once so much needed and so liberal. The efficiency of the local management is strengthened rather than impaired by them; they restrain only that they may guide.

It would only be a natural expectation that public schools, whose resources are thus largely supplemented by the State, would more or less quickly and surely drive out of the field of competition all private enterprise of the same kind; and it cannot be questioned that private adventure schools will ultimately have a hard battle to fight if they are to keep their ground; but as yet, in the district which I have traversed, there are no very general symptoms of their decline, and though they are certainly most numerous in localities (like the Unions of Chard and Yeovil), where the public schools, as a rule, are least efficient, they continue to occupy a large share of public favour and patronage, even by the side of the most flourishing public schools. They have their own particular recommendations, in which the public schools cannot pretend to compete with them. They are considered rather more genteel; the discipline is somewhat laxer: the children, being fewer in number, are supposed to be better looked after; the teacher is more ready to comply with the wishes, and even the whims, of the parents; or a particular branch of learning, which a parent regards as most useful for an individual child, is believed to be taught more rapidly and successfully at the private school than at its public competitor. Thus in Yeovil I found large, thriving, and efficient private schools still holding their ground against schools assisted by Government. At Misterton, a little village two miles from Crewkerne, is a private school with 132 children on its register, which is by far the most popular place of education in the neighbourhood, and to which scholars come flocking in from Crewkerne itself, and from all the villages round.

I had not many opportunities of contrasting the position of the unassisted public school with that of the school aided by Government. It is only in towns that the comparison can be made with much effect, as in the villages the educational condition of one (strange to say) seems hardly to be at all affected by that of another, even though that other be its nearest neighbour. Thus, to take two examples, I do not believe that the prosperity of the school at East Coker militates against the prosperity of the school at West Coker, which is not efficient, simply because local interest is not awakened; nor does the presence of a good school at Goodrich account for the absence of a good school at Walford half so naturally as local difficulties and a dispersion instead of a concentration of local energy. In the city of Hereford, however, there were the materials for a comparison; and though I could not put the uninspected schools in St. Peter's parish* in the same scale of efficiency as the Blue Coat or Scudamore schools, I should be doing very imperfect justice to the interest taken in them by their managers, and the pains bestowed on them by their teachers, if I did not say that they are doing their work well, and

Private schools as yet have not very sensibly declined by the side of Government aided schools.

Comparison of the unassisted with the assisted public school not easy to make.

* I am aware that these schools having been built with the aid of a Treasury grant (prior to the operations of the Committee of the Privy Council) are nominally under inspection. But the managers were very careful in telling me that the extent of inspection which they were bound to admit only went to ascertain that the school was maintained, irrespectively of its efficiency, and they were manifestly jealous of any other.

are evidently thriving. In the town of Ross, again, by the side of a British school under inspection, exist the uninspected Church schools. There is no difficulty felt, as far as I am aware, in supporting them, and the rector thinks, as far as life and efficiency are concerned, they do very well without Government aid. Without wishing to disparage the exertions of a very painstaking and intelligent master and mistress, I venture to express an opinion that they would do very much better with it.

Distinction to be drawn between the different kinds of Government assistance.

With regard, however, to the effect and advantages of Government assistance, I wish to draw a very marked and important distinction between grants awarded merely for the purposes of building schools, and those dispensed for their annual support. I am aware that the Lords of the Privy Council, before making a grant for the erection of a school, are very careful to exact something like a pledge or security, that the school, when built, shall be liberally or at least decently maintained. But I would invite any one to inspect the present condition of the schools at at least twenty places which I could easily specify, and say whether this pledge has been redeemed. The money laid out in these instances may have borne fruit; it possibly may bear fruit again; but, at the present moment, it is wholly or nearly unproductive. It would, perhaps, be a hard thing to say of schools in this category, that the money has been thrown away; but to dignify what goes on within the four walls of some of them with the name of education would be simply an abuse of terms. In the case of these schools nothing depends upon the inspector's report; no capitation or pupil-teachers' money, or augmentation of salary. His visit, therefore, even if he has time to pay one, does nothing to promote their efficiency. In some instances, I suspect, they never were better; in others, their decadence is to be traced to lukewarmness being substituted for zeal in those to whom, from their position, they would naturally look for support. The security given was good for a time, but is worthless now.

Feelings about the administration of Government aid.

Of the administration of the Government grant I certainly heard complaints, and was asked to read more than one memorial, praying that several parts of the system might be amended and made more available for the necessities of poor parishes and small schools. I could not, myself, for reasons, some of which I have already stated, echo the complaints or accompany the prayers of the memorialists. The Hereford Diocesan Board of Education in 1856 forwarded a memorial to the Committee of Council on Education, in which they requested some modification of the terms on which their Lordships' grants were made, on the grounds, (1) that combined schools were impracticable in this district, and (2) that from the smallness and poverty of a large proportion of the parishes, the promoters of schools were unable to come up to the prescribed requirements. But in the body of the report in which reference to this memorial is made, they attribute, as I have done, the difficulty of raising schools to a satisfactory standard, to the apathy of the non-resident owners of the soil. "If," they say, "non-resident landlords would give but *the very lowest per centage*

Memorial of the Hereford Board.

on their rental to the support of schools where their property is situated, schools both for *large and small parishes* might probably be maintained.* It appears, therefore, hardly reasonable to ask for exceptional treatment, when the chief difficulty is allowed to be not inherent in the circumstances of the case, but removable, and one that in a great many cases has been removed. It may be perfectly true, as stated, that "the Board have no experience to justify them in looking for an annual subscription of 7*l.* 7*s.*, in "small parishes;" but that fact surely is a reflection upon the state of local interest manifested in the cause, rather than upon the principles of central administration; and it may be questioned whether, in parishes where there is such an entire stagnation of liberality, Government money, even if granted on easier terms, would be turned to the best account. Experience certainly justifies the fear that it would not.

I was allowed to see another memorial prepared for adoption by an archidiaconal society, which, as it was circulating in Herefordshire, and took for the basis of some of its statements the statistics of education as existing in the counties of Dorset, Devon, Somerset, and Hereford, may be supposed to represent the feelings of many school promoters in my district. In this document, the difficulty of supporting schools in small parishes is not resolved into a local cause, as by the Herefordshire Board, but is very largely, and indeed fallaciously (though I do not say consciously), exaggerated. It is stated as "a fact, that the average stipends of certificated masters are in excess of 90*l.*, and of mistresses in excess of 60*l.*;" and, therefore, the memorialists "are of opinion that neither of these sums, even with the present proffered aid, can be raised in small agricultural parishes, and that such parishes are virtually excluded from the benefit of all educational grants;" and, upon this hypothesis, they proceed to offer several suggestions, in most cases involving a relaxation of the present Minutes, with the view of making them more generally applicable.† The exaggeration referred to arises out of the fallacy of averages. It may be quite true that

View of other memorialists.

* Report of Hereford Diocesan Board of Education for 1856, p. 13.

† These suggestions are worth recording. Premising that they relate to the case of parishes with a population of 600 and under (not being in boroughs or towns) they recommend, that (1), the school being mixed; (2), the teacher employed being a certificated or registered mistress, an ex-female pupil-teacher, or a female teacher of a parochial union school, with rating not below first-class of competency; and (3), the managers paying towards the stipend of the mistress a minimum salary of 2*l.*, to be made up of voluntary contributions and school pence in whatever proportions the managers may deem best (a sum, however, still, I fear, far "beyond the experience of the Hereford Board"), their Lordships of the Privy Council, on fulfilment of these conditions, shall make the following grants and aids—1. A female pupil-teacher for every 25 children paying ordinary attendance, in all cases where a certificated or registered mistress shall be engaged. 2. A gratuity of 9*l.* for instruction of one pupil, and 3*l.* for every additional pupil-teacher. 3. A capitation grant of 9*s.* per head for all children, irrespective of the amount of their payments, who may have attended 176 days. 4. Double amount of certificated gratuity (in no case to exceed 20*l.*) to all certificated mistresses; and a gratuity of 6*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to all registered mistresses, female teachers in unions not rated below competency, and ex-female pupil-teachers. 5. Grant of 5*l.* where the managers shall provide lodgings rent free. 6. A moiety of disbursements of school managers for fuel, repairs, apparatus, and books, provided that the amount claimed shall not in any year exceed 5*l.*

"the average stipends of certificated mistresses are in excess of "60*l.*," and that "such a sum, even with the present proffered aid, cannot be raised in small agricultural parishes;" but, on the other hand, such parishes are not required to raise it. As Secretary of a large diocesan training school, whose sphere of action covers one of the counties quoted in these statistics, and which chiefly has to provide for the exigencies of small parishes—at any rate for parishes with a population not exceeding 600—I can state, as a matter of fact, that a very large proportion of the students are annually sent out on stipends (exclusive of Government gratuities and lodgings), not exceeding 30*l.* a year. I admit that salaries show a tendency to rise, though it is a question whether, in the face of the annually increasing supply, which it is prophesied will soon overtake the demand, and in some places has already overtaken it, this tendency can be maintained; but I think there is no question, that any such wholesale outpouring of national money into the laps of local school promoters, as is suggested in this memorial, would entirely extinguish instead of stimulating private liberality. It would be impossible to maintain the independence of local management under conditions of such absolute mendicancy; and school promoters may be sure that the nation would not tolerate such an outlay of public money—which even at its present dimensions is beginning to startle prudent statesmen—for local purposes, without taking the administration of it far more stringently than it does at present under central official control. There are limits within which local administration and the principle of central subsidies may be combined; but there is also a point beyond which it is impossible to combine them. And so some, with whom I discussed the suggestions of this memorial, seemed to feel.

Cry for some remission in the number of days required for capitiation grant.

Another relaxation in the existing minutes of the Committee of Council, for which I occasionally heard a loud and importunate cry, is in the requirement of an attendance of 176 days for each child for whom capitiation money can be claimed. It was said to be an amount of attendance simply impossible, in a county with its sparse population, miry roads, and seven harvests, like Herefordshire. It is quite certain that regularity of attendance is largely affected by these causes; but no one can say, as a general rule, that the required attendance is fixed too high, and if there is to be a rule at all, incidental circumstances like these, which vary in degree (if not in kind) in every parish, can hardly be taken into account before applying it. Besides I have already endeavoured to show (*supra*, p. 34) that, as far as I had materials for striking an average (which in this case is a more trustworthy test than it is in many) the proportion of children on the school's books who had attended school 176 days in the preceding year was at least 20 per cent. in this county, or one in five. As schools improve I believe this proportion will steadily rise. Even as it is, in many schools, which, except in the article of efficiency, enjoy (so far as I am aware) no special advantage over their neighbours, a far more favourable rate is maintained. I

No necessity for relaxation.

will mention seven schools, in different parts of the county, on the accuracy of whose registers I think I can depend, as specimens.

TABLE XVI.

Name of School.	No. on Register.	Average Attendance.	Attended 176 Days.	Per-centage of Col. 3 on Col. 1.
Cradley (Girls' School)	109	80	44	40·3
Bridstow - - -	49	38	17	34·9
Hentland - - -	50	38	32	64
King's Cuple - - -	44	34	23	52·2
Stretton Grandison - - -	39	29	18	46·1
Goodrich - - -	96	66	31	32·2
Haffield (Ledbury) - - -	42	35	20	47·6
Totals - - -	429	329	185	43·1

The schools at King's Cuple and Stretton Grandison, it is true, not fulfilling the condition in respect of the qualification of their teachers, are not in a position to claim the capitation grant; but they become on that account the stronger illustrations of the point that I am maintaining, viz., the general fairness of the requirement, as they lack that additional inducement to enforce regular attendance, and yet succeed in securing it. When, therefore, I hear the requirement characterized as preposterous, I ask for the account of the success of these schools. What they have achieved, one would think that others similarly situated might achieve also.

I admit that what I have established in my own mind as a rule, viz., that the attendance of the children is determined by the efficiency of the school, breaks down in its application to some few cases. The following Table exhibits the phenomena of four schools, which for efficiency may challenge comparison with any rural school in Herefordshire, and in this respect they are not satisfactory.

Though in the case even of some good schools the condition seems hard to fulfil.

TABLE XVII.

Name of School.	No. on Register.	Average Attendance.	Attended 176 Days.	Per-centage of Col. 3 on Col. 1.
Ashperton - - -	82	63	9	10·9
Bosbury (Boys' School)	136	96	19	13·9
Much Marcle - - -	155	90	20	12·9
Yarpole - - -	116	54	4	3·4
Totals - - -	489	303	52	10·6

I know that these schools are anxiously watched over, and that everything is done that can be done to make them efficient.

Two of them, Ashperton and Bosbury, are immediately contiguous to Stretton Grandison, which makes so respectable an appearance in the previous Table; so that I am quite unable to account for the less satisfactory character of the result. I have no doubt that it can be traced to some cause which would be found to be remediable.*

Importance of
the Minute of
26th July 1858.

Whether the restriction of the benefit of the capitation grant to schools, of which the teachers are either registered or certificated, is necessary and wholesome; or, rather, whether the principle of registration might not be extended to *schools* of proved efficiency, instead of, as now, to *teachers* of certain intellectual attainments, is a question, the discussion of which I reserve to the close of this Report. I would only add, that, since the instructions under which the Assistant Commissioners in this inquiry have acted were issued, a very important Minute, that of the 26th July 1858, has appeared, designed especially for the relief of small parishes, and to a considerable extent facilitating the attainment of increased efficiency in rural schools.

Constitution of
local manage-
ment

In nine tenths of the rural schools in my district, whether inspected or uninspected (with the exception of the endowed schools, whose constitution is very various), whether there are trust deeds or not, and a specified committee or not, the actual direction of the school is by common consent of the subscribers left in the hands of the parochial clergyman. I met with a few cases—as at East Coker, Haffield, Frampton—where the lay supporters retain the management in their own power; but they are the exceptions. In towns the Committee act more generally as a body; but only periodically, once a month, or once a quarter, and in the intervals the teachers do pretty much what is right in their own eyes. As far as I could see, the management of a school does not become more effective by being more distributed. Nor must I omit to do justice to the many teachers whom I found zealously doing their duty for the work's sake, though seldom cheered by the smile of approval or the voice of encouragement. Indeed, the conscientiousness of the great majority of this body of men and women struck me as quite exemplary and remarkable, and as speaking more for their sterling qualifications for their office than any other feature I could name. Of course there were exceptions, and lamentable exceptions; *but they were exceptions.*

Comparative
efficiency of
schools.

2. I was directed to visit a sufficient number of schools of all kinds within my district, to supply your Grace and the Commis-

* The arrangement of school hours may have something to do with it. At Bridstow, King's Cople, and Hentland, the hours are from 10 a.m. to 12.30; half an hour allowed for dinner, which the children bring with them, and afternoon school from 1.0 to 3.0 p.m. The mistress at Bridstow told me that she found the arrangement answer very well. I suggested it to a school manager near Hereford, who complained of irregular attendance. He adopted it on the spot; and on my writing three weeks afterwards to inquire with what success, told me that he already found the advantage of it. These hours allow of a good deal of work being done by the children both before and after school—(a boy at Bridstow, a dairy farmer's son, told me that he had milked the cows before coming to school that morning)—as well as of distant children getting to school in time. It secures both regularity and punctuality.

sioners with the grounds of an opinion as to their comparative efficiency. On the efficiency of private schools I have already made some remarks: I confine myself in the following statement to public schools. With so many other matters to investigate, and with four or five parishes to be visited per day, it will at once be felt that the time at my disposal for the purpose of actual inspection was very limited. But it is a kind of work in which an eye is acquired by practice, and half an hour spent in an ordinary rural school, with an average amount of experience in the spender, is enough to enable him to form a fair judgment of the soundness of the methods of instruction employed, and of the school's general efficiency. In schools of a larger size or higher pretensions, such as the Blue Coat School at Hereford, or the school at Bosbury, I made a much more searching examination, generally passing a whole morning or afternoon in them.

Statement refers only to the efficiency of public schools.

My test of efficiency was, how far the instruction given was brought to bear on the actual concerns and requirements of life; how far the children could read with sufficient emphasis and expression to convey a meaning to themselves or give pleasure to a listener; how far they could write a sentence from dictation free from gross errors in spelling; what notion they had of writing a letter, both as to form and substance; what power of making rapid and correct calculations in their heads; how far they appeared to be taught mechanically or rationally; and last, but not least, to what extent they possessed an intelligent comprehension of those religious truths—the great articles of faith, and lines of duty—with which they were nominally being indoctrinated.* As would be expected, I found each and all of these qualities possessed by different schools in very various degrees, which I have endeavoured to tabulate in the following form:—

Test of efficiency which was applied.

TABLE XVIII.

Showing a Classification of Schools according to Efficiency—the Result of actual Inspection.†

Name of District.	Efficient Schools.	Useful Schools.	Schools inadequate, but still doing some good.	Inefficient Schools.	Total Inspected.
Sherborne - -	11	44	50	32	137
Hereford - -	12	33	71	29	145
Totals -	23	77	121	61	282

* Her Majesty's Inspector, Mr. Brookfield, has given, as usual with him, a lively description of the comparative efficiency of schools, in the Minutes of 1854-5, pp. 560, 561. My notion of "efficiency" is about half way between his "fair" and "excellent." I looked in every case to the intelligence with which the instruction was being given and received, rather than to the actual amount of so-called "attainments."

† This Table does not include any of the schools in the Union of Dore the state of which is specially reported in an Appendix.

Proportion of
efficient schools
very small.

It thus appears, that out of 282 schools, only 100, little more than one in three, are in a condition that ought to be satisfactory either to teachers or managers; while not more than 23—or scarcely one in 12—are in that state of efficiency which shall send forth a child at 10 years of age into the world for the work of life, with that amount of scholarship which, when speaking of the limits of the school age, I attempted to describe. (p. 46.)

Causes of in-
efficiency.

The two great rocks on which schools make shipwreck of their efficiency, are (1) the incapacity of the teachers, and (2) the impatience with which, when capable, they hurry the children over those elementary but fundamental portions of a subject, without a clear perception of which an accurate knowledge of it in its higher branches, or as a whole, becomes ever after impossible. A less frequent, but still not uncommon, cause is the rapid change of teachers which occurs in some schools.* The first cause is too common to require illustration; but I may be allowed to mention a case exemplifying the second.

Illustration.

I found a school, in the neighbourhood of Ledbury, under a mistress who had herself been educated there as a pupil-teacher, who took a very high place—fourteenth—on the list of Queen's scholars at the completion of her apprenticeship, who was trained at one of the best normal colleges in England, and had been placed in the first class as a student both of the first and of the second year, who had had charge of her school fifteen months, and who was evidently a person of superior intelligence and of admirable moral tone. The following are the notes I made of my examination:—"Writing moderate; arithmetic not beyond compound addition. Children only knew the *beginning* of the pence table, and no weights or measures. No grammar is taught, very little geography, and hardly any history. The reading is nice in tone, but quite in its rudiments. No child knew the meaning of 'exhausted' (a word that occurred in the passage read), and when I asked if they could tell me the singular number of the noun 'children,' the mistress said they did not understand the question." The school completely perplexed me, as it must have been under Government inspection, and supplied with a certificated mistress at a high salary and a pupil-teacher for at least six years. The mistress told me she had herself commenced by attempting to teach higher subjects, but finding that the children were thoroughly ill-grounded, she had had moral courage enough to condescend to teach the elements. The school had suffered also from the rapid succession, as well as from the bad judgment, of former teachers. But I think the whole question of the comparative efficiency of schools is best illustrated by examples. I

* Since my return home from this inquiry I was questioning seven or eight students in the Salisbury Training School, who had only obtained very low places in the list of Queen's scholars at the competitive examination of Christmas 1858, about their antecedents as pupil-teachers. I found that in every case they attributed, and I do not doubt justly, their want of success to the frequent changes of their teachers; several of them had been under four different mistresses in five years' apprenticeship.

have appended therefore a sufficient number of those which I thought most to the purpose (taken from my note-book) in the "Evidence."


It seems, I would add, impossible to bring a school into a real state of efficiency unless the managers avail themselves to the fullest extent—particularly in the employment of pupil-teachers—of the resources opened by the Committee of the Privy Council. I only met with two exceptions to this rule—Mr. Ricardo's school at Berrow and Mr. Baker's school at Monkland, the secret of success in each case being, that at Berrow there is a manageable number of boys, none of them very young, under a very active trained master, who has the gift of awakening all their intelligence; while at Monkland Mr. Baker himself takes so prominent a part in the instruction, that, having a competent mistress to co-operate with him, he can afford to dispense with other aid.

Schools can hardly be made efficient where Government aid is not invoked.

But it was a bitter disappointment to me, on entering the magnificent fabric which has just been erected at a cost of about 4,000*l.* for the parochial schools of Great Malvern, to find both the juvenile and the infant school under uncertificated teachers, with no other assistance but such as about a dozen little imps of monitors most ineffectively supplied. I can understand and sympathize with the reluctance of managers to part with old or tried and trusted teachers; but I cannot understand, where one has a free start, an apparently deliberate preference for an outworn and superseded system. The girls' and infant schools at Upton-on-Severn were in the same circumstances, and neither of them, consequently, in a state of efficiency at all commensurate with the external pretensions of the building—a very handsome one—in which they are held. It is strange that people so often forget the practical application of that simple proverb of the Great Teacher, which determines the relative value of the "body" and its "raiment."*

While upon this part of my subject, I ought not to omit to notice the very satisfactory condition of many of the workhouse schools. I may particularly specify those at Dorchester, Cerne, Yeovil, Hereford, and Ledbury. Not only the intelligence and knowledge, but the healthy, cheerful air of the children's faces and manners, impressed itself upon me very vividly. The instruction given is not ambitious in its range, but thoroughly sound of its kind; the writing almost without exception good, and the reading of the girls in the Hereford workhouse the best for articulation and freedom from provincialisms that I heard in the county. It struck me that the condition of the workhouse schools very nearly approached the ideal of what elementary education in this country under our confessedly difficult social

Condition of Workhouse schools.

* I have another fault to find with the schools at Great Malvern, structurally considered. In each of the rooms there is such an amount of echo as to be quite confusing, while the shape of the room, in which the mixed school is held, like an H, or thus , is such that there is no point at which the master, who is single-handed, can command the whole. Thorough discipline, therefore, if the room were full, would be impossible.

circumstances ought to be,—perfectly unassuming, and perfectly in keeping with what the children's future career is likely to be.

The teachers are rarely persons of what would be called high attainments, have not often even been trained; but the mistresses generally are motherly people of mature age, and they are all, in the instances I have quoted, evidently of strong common sense, and thoroughly understand what is possible in their schools, and what is not. I would point to the mistresses at Dorchester, Cerne, Yeovil, and Hereford, as types of the sort of teacher in whose hands our mixed rural schools would be certain to succeed.

Probable causes of the efficiency of workhouse schools.

I attribute the efficiency of workhouse schools chiefly to the operation of the following causes:—

1. The regularity of the attendance of the children. Every child in the house, unless sick, is certain to be in school.

2. The adequacy of the teaching power. The schools that I saw were all small, and without pupil-teachers, but in no case with more than 20 children to the single instructor.

3. The unambitious character of the instruction given, which gives time for what is taught being taught thoroughly.

4. The mixture of industrial with mental work, the advantages of which I fully admit where the combination is possible. These children rarely receive more than three hours' mental culture a day.

5. The constant intercourse between the children and their teacher. They are thus out of the reach of (what are too often) the vulgarizing and demoralizing influences of home; hence, the pronunciation in the workhouse schools is very rarely provincial, and in most cases you can hardly believe, as you look on their happy, trustful faces, that you have before you a set of pauper children, whose portion, both present and future, is generally assumed to be of "all men the most miserable."

Importance of selecting teachers solely with reference to the efficiency of the school.

It is well observed by Mr. Horace Mann, in the preliminary Report to the Educational Census of 1851, p. 33, that the efficiency of the school depends chiefly, if not entirely, on the efficiency of the teacher. Teachers vary in efficiency as infinitely as shoemakers or carpenters. They take to their trade, and are appointed to their schools, from all sorts of motives, with all sorts of physical, moral, and intellectual qualifications and disqualifications, and at all rates of salary. In one case, it was convenient to the school manager that the schoolmistress should be the wife of his coachman; in another, the wife of the gardener. The conjugal relation was rarely so happily adjusted that both husband and wife suited, and so in the former case, when I visited the parish, the school had been closed two months, because the coachman proved a drunkard, and was sent about his business; in the latter, the clergyman had found from two experiences that the system did not answer, and had wisely discontinued it. Sometimes teachers are appointed because they are pious people; sometimes because they can do nothing else; sometimes they are old servants; sometimes because it is very erroneously supposed that a person in too weak health for ordinary employments is strong enough to keep a school. Once I found

a mistress with only one arm; twice, a master with only one leg; once, a master who, in addition to having lost a hand, was subject to epileptic fits; once, a mistress who was as deaf as a post. In one large parish the master just appointed was said to be a man of notoriously bad character; in another, a man in utterly broken health receiving parish relief; in another, a decent fellow, a shoemaker by trade, who was obliged to eke out his scanty stipend by cobbling still; in another, a carpenter, "as good a schoolmaster," the neighbours said, "as ever put foot to ground," but occupied more than half his time with his more profitable handicraft, as his wretched salary was but 12*l.* a year; in another, a conceited Scotchman, whom, entering the room suddenly, I found smoking his pipe in the midst of his boys, and who in the plenitude of his self-sufficiency informed me that I should find the teachers in England generally very incompetent, though his own school was one scene of disorder, and when I came to look at his return, I found that his orthography was anything but according to received usage. In many public schools, the mistress is still nothing but a mere dame of the old style, with no pretensions to mental culture. I could easily mention numerous instances. I believe in all the cases the women employed are of respectable character, and so far may have an influence for good; but, if we are trying to train minds or impart knowledge, it is simply preposterous to instal them in the post of schoolmistress.

The stipends, however, as at present paid, are so low, that it is perhaps impossible to secure the services of more competent persons. It would hardly be believed, apart from the evidence of facts, that such rates of remuneration as are sometimes current could either be offered or accepted. While the certificated master gets his 50*l.* to 70*l.*, and the certificated mistress her 30*l.* to 40*l.* a year, exclusive of all Government gratuities and augmentations, their less fortunate fellow workers are living on stipends of 20*l.*, 15*l.*, and in more than one case as low as 10*l.* a year. The position of these ill-paid labourers excited in me the liveliest feelings, occasionally of compassion, more frequently of indignation. I single out, by way of specimen, two of emphatic and discreditable prominence, though not of perfect isolation. There are too many others only too like them. In Somersetshire, there is a parish with a population of upwards of 700, and land of the rateable value of upwards of 3,000*l.*; there are large endowed charities relieving the pockets of the wealthy parishioners of numerous ordinary claims for coal, blankets, &c.; yet the amount raised by voluntary subscriptions to pay the mistress's salary is 5*l.* a year. The children's pence augment it to 13*l.* In Herefordshire, there is a parish with a population of nearly 1,000; the rateable value of its lands is more than 6,000*l.*, the mistress's salary is 14*l.*, out of which she has to find fuel, and to pay 5*l.* 12*s.* a year rent for the house in which she lives, and in which the school is carried on. It is not an incommensurate fact, under such conditions, that out of such a population, which, at the continental rate of one in six, ought to send 166 children to school, only 25 boys and girls

Stipends often too low to secure efficient teachers.

actually are at school, of whom not more than 14 attend regularly, and only two are above ten years of age. It is only just to the clergyman to say that the whole expense of the school,—15*l.* a year,—is returned as falling upon him, not one of the owners of these lands rated at 6,000*l.* a year contributing a farthing. I do not remember any other cases where schools are professedly maintained at all, so strong as these; but I have a score at least noted down among my memoranda which do not differ very widely. In the case of the Somersetshire parish, there is an additional fact, which gives a little more point to the circumstances, and that is, that a Government grant of 287*l.* was awarded towards the erection of the fabric of the school. In justice again to the clergyman, it should be mentioned that the value of the living is under 200*l.*; that from ill health he is obliged to be non-resident, and to be at the expense of keeping a curate; and that, consequently, the school no longer has the benefit of the warm interest that he once took in its welfare. Neither of these parishes are “poor parishes” in any possible sense of the words. They appear to me to be simply parishes in which the owners of property have divested themselves of all its responsibilities. I can readily make allowance for real difficulties, but these seldom exist, unless the difficulty of touching in some hearts the chord of human sympathy be reckoned one.

But even when higher salaries are paid the condition of the school is too often unsatisfactory.

That schools under teachers engaged at such miserably inadequate stipends should be efficient, or even useful, could not reasonably be expected. That the majority of stipends being low, the majority of schools should fail to come up to a satisfactory standard, is, therefore, nothing more than a rational inference. But I do not think, even where salaries are liberal, and the possession of a certificate attests with a certain amount of warranty the competency of the teacher, that the efficiency of a large proportion of the schools is satisfactory, or quite of the kind that one would desire to see. Good reading—by which I mean distinct articulation, proper expression, and an intelligent apprehension of the drift of the passage read—is a treat that I was very rarely permitted to enjoy. The children appear to fall into slovenly habits,—indistinctness of sight as well as of speech—in the lower classes, which become ineradicable. The modern method of discovering the pronunciation of a hard or previously unknown word seems singularly infelicitous. There is a reading lesson in the third Irish Book, which I was fond of using as a kind of test. It is the story of a congress of birds summoned by a swallow to discuss the proper course to pursue in reference to a field which a farmer was sowing with hempseed. It begins easily enough to tempt the children to start glibly, but in the second or third line there comes the adverb “unanimously,” a long but by no means difficult word to articulate for children who have ever been taught to regard the *syllabic* arrangement of letters, but upon which the second class invariably, and very often the first class, broke down. There would be first an uncomfortable pause, then a wistful eye cast on the teacher; then, on my request that the word might be

Rarity of good reading.

1. As regards the power of articulation.

spelt, a rapid gabble of the 11 letters of which the word is composed; at the conclusion of this process, the same helpless impotence to proceed; then the eye once more turned upon the teacher; and finally, in most cases, the frank confession of the latter that it was her habit always to help the children at this point, and that when they had repeated the letters, she gave them the pronunciation of the word. I venture to assert that the girls in the Hereford workhouse were not taught to read in this way. Such teaching will never enable its pupils "*nare sine cortice.*"

Another phenomenon that you frequently observe in hearing a class read, not perhaps the very highest class in a school, but the second and third classes, and which certainly, I think, indicates the absence of some very important qualifications in the teacher, is that, if you quietly stand by and give the children their head (so to speak), for five minutes, without stoppage or correction of any kind, you will be perfectly amazed, if it is at all a difficult passage, at the quantity of utterly unintelligible gibberish that you will have listened to. I remember once hearing at the inspection of a school, though not in the course of this inquiry, the head girl in the first class read St. Luke, iv. 14, thus:— And there went "a flame of him through all the religion round about," with perfect self-satisfaction, and in utter unconsciousness of the absurd blunders she was perpetrating. Such children never can have been accustomed to connect sense and sound, but have simply acquired a mechanical facility of utterance which is a bar instead of a help to rational progress. A piece of mechanism, when it does get out of gear, plays havoc just in proportion to the speed at which it is going. The unconscious thing believes that its only duty is to go, and whether it is going right or wrong it has no test within itself to discover.*

2. As regards the power of reading with intelligence.

As for taste, feeling, propriety of emphasis, particularly in reading poetry, you must not expect to find these in the great mass of elementary schools. I rarely ventured to choose a poetical passage for the purpose of a test, and the only instance

3. As regards the power of reading with taste.

* The importance of good reading—the key of knowledge—the power which is to enable a man to become a self-educator, is so great, that perhaps I may be allowed, in a note, to enumerate the reasons that appear to me to prevent its being more frequently met with in elementary schools. They are as follows:—

1. The use, or rather the abuse, of parallel desks. These were never surely intended for reading lessons. Where there is a triple tier of them, in a school with the average amount of concomitant noise, I defy the articulation of the child who may happen to be reading to be audible to the whole class. Those in the front row cannot hear those in the hindmost row, nor vice versa. I tested the truth of this again and again, at Sherborne, Malvern, and many other places where I found the practice in use. The reading class, it seems to me, should always be drawn up in square or horse shoe.

2. The size of the class, and consequently the short time that each child is exercised. Take a class of 20, and allow 45 minutes for the lesson, more, probably, than they get clear. This gives 2¼ minutes to each child. If (which is rare) they read twice in the day, each child only reads 4½ minutes per diem, or 22½ minutes per week.

3. The explosion of the old fashion of spelling words by syllables.

4. The want of attention to stops.

5. The low mumbling tone of voice into which children are allowed to fall.

6. The uninteresting, desultory character of the text-books mostly in use.

7. The want of intelligent questioning on the part of the teacher.

8. The imperfect acquaintance, both of teachers and scholars, with the laws of grammatical analysis, which govern the groupings of words, and with the laws of rhetorical expression, which have so large an influence upon elocution.

where, having done so, I remember being pleased with the result, was in the case of a little girl in a private school at Stoke-sub-Hamdon, who read me one of her hymns with a good deal of delicacy of articulation and depth of feeling.

Want of method
in the teaching.

I do not think that teachers generally, even certificated teachers, except just the very flower of them, pay sufficient attention to method. I found in a school at ———, under a first-class certificated mistress, the girls of the first class writing down upon their slates the abstract of a lesson they had just had given to them in grammar, the subject being the different modes of the formation of the plural of nouns. I looked at the slates, and questioned the children, and discovered that they had no idea that there was any *general* rule on the subject, or that even the exceptions could be generalized. The mistress told me that she had given them a few examples of each formation, but no rule, much less any principle; and this would be called a grammar lesson! I could mention many similar instances.

Teachers often
too ambitious.

I am afraid, also, that the instruction given in schools by some of the certificated teachers is too ambitious, or at least overlooks the distinction between points of first and points of secondary necessity, and often very injudiciously gives a preference to the latter. I have before me the notes of my inspection of two schools in adjoining parishes in Herefordshire, one under an untrained mistress, the other taught by a certificated Battersea master. I have made, I find, a special remark, that the children in the latter school had not so good a notion of beginning and ending a letter, as the children in the former; while in the article of spelling, there were four children in the former school who had no mistake in the passage they wrote out from my dictation, and only two in the latter. Yet next to the power of intelligent reading, it would be difficult to mention any talent so valuable, when he leaves school, to a child in that rank of life, as the ability to express himself freely and naturally, when he wishes to communicate by letter with absent friends. In some schools—as the excellent British school at Admiston—the writing of letters and the making out of little shop-bills are set as lessons to be done at home. Both parents and children like them, and few lessons can be mentioned that are more really useful. I frequently recommended their adoption in schools where the practice had been previously unknown.

Managers frequently unacquainted with the methods of instruction employed in their schools.

It were very much to be desired that the managers of schools, who surely have more experience than the young teachers in whose hands the actual work of instruction lies, would so far superintend and control this, as to ascertain that the methods employed are really intelligent, and that primary points of universal utility are not postponed to secondary points, of greater brilliancy perhaps, but of more questionable advantage. I believe that many of these inexperienced teachers go wrong simply because they have no one to tell them how to go right. Entering a school in Dorsetshire, I found a poor young mistress, evidently earnest in her work, trying to teach out of the elementary Irish Arithmetic Book—one

of the very worst that can be used in a school—her first class how to work sums in long division. The sum on the black board before them contained eight figures in the dividend, which as I expected, not one child in the class could read; and when, turning to something simpler and more practical, I asked the children if their mother sent them to the shop with half-a-crown, and told them to buy 1 lb. of coffee at 1s. 4d., and 1 lb. of sugar at 6d., how much change they ought to bring, there was not one who could tell me. The mistress in this case complained that she had no one to guide her; she would have been thankful if she had. It is quite a mistake to suppose that teachers generally dislike to receive suggestions. I never found an instance of any offered by myself being received otherwise than gratefully; and in several cases I was even invited to make recommendations. As I have already said, that I think people generally are not aware how much more might be done for education by a very little more expenditure of money, so I say now, that I think the reflection has never occurred to them what an impulse might be given to the efforts of the teacher by a very little personal participation of the managers in the work.

3. I did not myself observe any tendency to dissatisfaction with their position in the masters or mistresses with whom I came personally into contact, though I am told by several persons, who have given me their evidence in writing, that dissatisfaction exists partly (to quote the language of my informants), "from mistaken notions as to their position in society;" partly from finding the children backward, their task irksome, and themselves thrown among people of inferior education to their own. Mr. Snell, the master of one of the best schools that I came across, the British school at East Coker, thus states his opinion:—"The best masters are dissatisfied. They do not consider their remuneration " or their social position commensurate with the importance of their " office, or with the quality of their education and personal ability." I should not say, from what I saw of him in his school, that Mr. Snell himself shares these feelings; and I should be very sorry to think that they were general. If they were, seeing what the work is, and always will be, and how too it is always likely to be remunerated, I should at once throw myself into the reactionary views of those, who think that we are neither employing the proper instruments, nor training them in the proper way. I freely admit that the social position of school teachers, of the highly trained and cultivated ones, is a great difficulty even in towns, and still more so in country villages. It is difficult to point to the class with whom they can associate at all, still more difficult to find those with whom they can associate with profit or pleasure. But there are other men besides schoolmasters who have to do their work in life under social disadvantages, and the character of their work, if engaged in with an earnest hearty purpose, ought, one would hope, to elevate them above morbid views as to their position in society, as well as fortify them against any sense of

I am told that dissatisfaction exists in teachers, but I did not observe it.

Social position of teachers a difficulty.

disproportion between the task set before them and the quality of their education and personal ability. In this the teacher's work is like the pastor's, it is marred by self-consciousness. They only do it successfully who, finding a work placed before them, accept it as a leading of Divine Providence, and, "take the oversight thereof, not by constraint, but willingly; not for filthy lucre, but of a ready mind." I only remember one instance in which a teacher seemed contemplating the adoption of another profession, which might open to him a wider career of advancement; and the managers were allowing him to keep terms occasionally at Trinity College, Dublin, in hopes that he might at last be able to proceed to his B.A. degree. In two instances I found schoolmistresses, but I am sure only from the highest and holiest motives, who were anxious to be engaged, as they thought, still more fully in their Master's service, by undertaking missionary work in India.

High character generally of teachers.

I heard, indeed, in several cases complaints of the arrogance and conceit of some of the predecessors of the teachers whom I myself found in charge of the schools, and it would be quite contrary to the ordinary laws of human nature if in so large a body of human beings such tempers were not occasionally exhibited. But I believe them to be quite exceptional, and I should wish to bear my humble testimony to the very admirable spirit in which the great body of certificated teachers whom I either saw in the course of this inquiry, or have the pleasure of being acquainted with elsewhere, are doing the work to which they have been called. Numerous as were the schools I visited, I only came to one where the teacher was resigning his situation for reasons which, though not disclosed, and which consequently I did not think I had a right to inquire into, I could yet see from the way in which they were alluded to were discreditable.

The administration of the Government aid does not throw difficulties in the way of engaging competent teachers.

It cannot, I think, possibly be true—certainly I met with no instance to prove it—that the prospects, opened by the Committee of Council to certificated teachers, throw difficulties in the way of private charitable persons, who, having established schools, are desirous of providing them with competent masters, unless it be in the rare cases of those managers who, at the same time that they wish to engage the services of a certificated teacher, refuse to place their schools in such relation to the Government as will allow of his reaping the pecuniary benefit of his certificate. Unless they are prepared or able to place their teacher by their private liberality in such a position as to be independent of augmentation, by raising his salary to the same point at which it would stand in an average inspected school *with* it—as is done in the boys' school at Bosbury—they cannot reasonably expect him to sacrifice his temporal interests to gratify their theories, or even, if conscience must be needlessly troublesome in such a matter, their conscientious scruples. A system being at work, which holds out manifest and substantial advantages both to teachers and to schools, I cannot choose to place myself in a relation adverse or external to it, without paying for my crotchet to the extent to which I am

influenced by it. In the few schools that at the moment occur to me, as exemplifying the case of standing aloof, I know not why, from the system of Government aid, and being established by private persons, *e. g.* Mr. Ricardo's school at Berrow and Mr. Higginson's at Tedstone Wafer, the teachers, though uncertificated, are excellently qualified for the work they have to do. With adequate salaries I believe there is no difficulty in finding competent teachers; offering an inadequate salary, no one has a right to expect to meet with them. I do not recollect an instance of a liberally supported school that was ill served. The labourer is, of course, worthy of his hire here as elsewhere.

I frequently, however, heard a complaint of the difficulty of inducing the most eligible boys to accept pupil-teacherships in consequence of the scale of payments for the first two years (as it was asserted) being insufficient to provide them the barest maintenance, and several school managers recommended the adoption of a higher scale, or else a redistribution and greater equalization of the payments of the present one. I should hope that the recent Minute of the 26th July 1858, which throws open pupil-teacherships, of the rating and with the payments of the fourth year, to candidates above 16 years of age, will remove the grounds of this complaint, and form a valuable boon to schools. I certainly was unfavourably struck with the mien and tone of most of the male pupil-teachers that I saw, as compared with those of the other sex. There was a coarseness, a roughness of manner and utterance about most of them, which was ungrateful to me, and, with the exception of two rather promising ones at Yeovil, I do not remember many that struck me as being quite the stuff out of which ultimately to shape an attractive and successful schoolmaster. The female pupil-teachers, on the other hand, are as generally prepossessing. The difficulty referred to may account for the difference.

4. I pass on to speak of the fabric and internal arrangements of schools, which naturally, though not to the extent which some people suppose, have a considerable influence upon their efficiency.

The new school buildings, not in external ornamentation, on which a good deal of very questionable taste and of very unquestionable expense is often lavished, but in internal arrangements, seem gradually approaching all to one type—that of long and comparatively narrow rooms, occupied on one side throughout their length by parallel desks. I confess that I think the “parallel desk” hobby, like many others, has been overridden. Almost the whole work of the school is now carried on in them. I have already said that I think they have largely helped to spoil the reading. I am afraid that they must bear a good deal of the blame attached to the bad writing of most national schools, which had become sufficiently conspicuous to call forth a letter even from a Prime Minister. It rarely happens that they are wide enough apart to allow the teacher to pass freely behind the pupils, while engaged with their copybooks, to supervise their perform-

A difficulty found in getting male pupil-teachers.

School buildings and fittings.

Question if the present general arrangement of schoolrooms is the best.

ances, or correct any mechanical faults in the execution of it. I seem to prefer the old British and Foreign School Society's arrangement, in which the room being wider in proportion to its length, and the parallel desks being placed at one end, and perhaps the gallery at the other, there is an unoccupied area in the middle, where the classes can be deployed for drill, or aggregated for singing, or distributed for the reading lessons.

State of the apparatus.

In the good schools there is generally a sufficiency of apparatus—in the inferior schools a lamentable poverty. One article, however, that I never remember to have seen, and which appears to me absolutely necessary for the comprehension of geographical phenomena, is a globe.* Such a thing might be in stock; but, if so, it was stowed away out of sight, and, like most things in that category, soon became out of mind.

Many modern schools badly built.

A great many of the new schools, however, in spite of the pretentiousness of their architectural features, seem to be infamously built. The Scudamore schools at Hereford, a costly pile, I was told are falling to pieces; and in the new schools at Orleton, the four walls showed an evident tendency to part company under the pressure of a ponderous roof,—a danger which, I fear, had been very imperfectly remedied by the introduction between each set of rafters of additional tie-beams, which made the roof, as you gazed upward at it from the inside, look like an intricate timber cats-cradle.

Often on unsuitable sites.

Schools are often erected in very ineligible situations. At Chard they are, like the church and parsonage, quite outside the town; at Yeovil, besides being far from central, they are in a low and dirty neighbourhood; at Ross, they are in the churchyard; at Hereford, the Scudamore schools are in the skirts of a most demoralized suburb. Of course in towns there are difficulties, often insuperable, in the way of procuring the fittest site; but even in country parishes the same difficulty exists far more frequently than could be imagined. At Hoarwithy, the zealous clergyman, who mainly supports the school at an annual cost of more than 40*l.*, cannot persuade any of the landowners to sell him a site that would be in the least convenient, and is obliged to carry on the school in a rented building, very ill adapted to the purpose, but which has the advantage of being in the heart of the population.

Playgrounds not much used.

The playgrounds attached to the schools are of very slight utility for any purpose of recreation beyond affording a place where the children can be turned out between lessons to get a mouthful of fresh air. A solitary pole for a giant's-stride (at the time of my visit, which was in the winter, with the ropes generally missing), is the only feature to indicate that the ground before you is used for purposes of play. In one or two places there is a covered shed, nominally for use in wet weather. The games played seemed

* There was a black outline globe, I observed, at Bridstow; but it was perched upon a high window-shelf, covered with dust, and looked as though it were never used.

generally aimless, as though there were no one taking any interest in them or directing them—for good games need to be taught as well as lessons—and I do not think that the encouragement of healthy athletic sports, such as cricket, football, &c., has yet found the legitimate place in the education of boys of this class, which public school men would desire, who vividly remember how much it contributed to their own.

As games of this kind are unsuitable for girls, they, or at any rate the elder ones, might find a little wholesome physical exercise, meanwhile, in cleaning out the school. In this work, if properly superintended, they would acquire a good deal of knowledge that would prove very useful to them when they come to be housemaids, or have furniture to keep in order of their own. I often visited schools when this so-called cleaning was going on, either at the dinner hour or when the school was closed for the day. I do not remember an instance in which any one was present to overlook the children, or to see that the work was done properly. In most cases it was a mere scene of helter-skelter, dust, mess, and confusion, and, as it seemed to me, a valuable opportunity for giving a little industrial training was thus thrown away.

Girls not employed, as they might be, in cleaning.

In fact, the general appearance of school premises, both inside and outside, did not give the impression that the spirit of neatness presides over them. Here the plaster is all battered off the walls; there the playground, a deep red clay, is one sea of mud, and you have to walk on tiptoe to reach the door; elsewhere, some score of panes of glass are broken in the windows, and the vacuum is filled up with particoloured patches of paper; in one case I noticed obscene words pencilled on the very entrance door, which the teacher therefore must have before his eyes every day, but which had not been removed. In a school in Somersetshire, about eighteen months ago, I observed that the parallel desks were made of American birch, French polished. I expressed surprise to the manager, who was at my side, at the phenomenon, and my fears that under constant daily use they would soon spoil. "Spoil, sir," he replied; "we would not have anything here that would not spoil." And I think there is no doubt that even children take pride in keeping good things in nice order, when they have once been taught and have felt the pleasure and comforts of tidiness. At any rate, the French polished desks were as bright and stainless as the furniture in any gentleman's dining room. Each girl was made responsible for her own. I should say that the smaller village schools generally contrast advantageously in this respect with the town schools or the large national schools. Schools, such as those at Monkland or Madresfield, are quite patterns of order, as well as of a good many things besides.

General want of tidiness.

As I am speaking of desks, I may mention that I found several schoolmasters preferring the flat to the sloping. Those at the school at Admiston were of that kind—indeed had been altered to their present shape; and the master thought the children wrote, in consequence, in a better position and with more freedom. I was surprised to find the notion existing, as I had

fancied that the superiority of the slope, both in respect of physical considerations, as preventing stooping, and as giving greater mechanical facility to the penman, was universally admitted.

No speciality in the arrangement of classes.

There is very little calling for special remark in regard either to the arrangement of classes or the supply of books and school materials. In far too many schools, the "higgledy-piggledy" arrangement still prevails. Indeed, this is the general feature where the monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster, backed up by the classes-in-square system of the National Society, the whole under the guidance of an untrained inmethodical master or mistress, holds its ground; and where a better arrangement is adopted, it is so universally of the same character—that approved by the Committee of Council—as to present no marks of noticeable speciality. I have already said that the system which I believe has the sanction of the British and Foreign School Society appears to me to possess several very conspicuous advantages. A school in my own neighbourhood, at Upper Wallop, in Hampshire, fitted up in this way, with parallel desks on a graduated platform at one end, and a gallery at the other, the area between being free, and a curtain, when needed, dividing the room into two, the length being about 45 feet, and the breadth 20 or 22, has always struck me as presenting a model of working arrangements.

Evil of open roofs.

The high pitched open roofs, which have come almost universally into fashion, though doubtless the most picturesque, have several serious disadvantages. They are bad acoustically, almost always generating an echo; and they offer only too secure a lodgment for inaccessible masses of dust and cobwebs, which do not form an agreeable object to the eye. In most cases, a ceiling thrown across at the level of the purlins, and therefore supposing it to be 12 feet to the wall plate at an elevation of about 15 or 16 feet from the floor, would be a great improvement in respect of the vibration of sound, while it would be high enough to answer all the purposes of ventilation.

The reading books generally in use not of a good class.

In supplying themselves with books, the schools seem to follow one another almost entirely in the same track. The supply seldom goes much beyond reading books; and these those issued by the chief educational societies, particularly the so-called "Irish" books, form the staple of the stock. I think it a pity that the generality of reading books are not a little more *interesting* and a little less *instructive*. In the Irish books, with which I am most familiar, in almost every volume of the series, besides the desultory and discursive character of the contents, the children have to wade through many dreary pages of unsystematized scientific lore, giving very little scope to the graces of emphasis or expression, and sorely bewildering, I should think, in their direct action on the brain. I question whether there would not be more life and animation in the class, if they had a dozen "Robinson Crusoes" in their hands, instead of a dozen "Fourth Irish books."

Are rarely in books.

I was sorry to find that it is so seldom the custom for the

children to buy their own class books, or to learn home lessons. The Blue Coat School at Hereford, in this as in a good many other points, constitutes a favourable exception. Every child that you meet going to that school has his little bundle of four or five books strapped together in his hand, and this very symptom prepares you for the higher amount and greater breadth of intellectual cultivation that makes the school remarkable.

I have previously remarked on the deficient supply of appliances of this kind in the majority of the endowed schools, and in many parochial schools of the ordinary type things are not much better. My eyes fall upon one extreme case in my note book. In a Herefordshire school, with 76 children on the register, I find that the stock of religious reading books consisted of "three torn Bibles; there are no testaments, and the desks are in a most shaky condition." Nothing is said of books of secular instruction, but considering the stress that is generally laid upon the religious element, it is hardly likely that the ordinary laws of proportion in this case would be so signally reversed. I should add, that the master was freshly come, and the clergyman's health was so feeble that he could hardly ever get to the school. I do not mean, therefore, that my description is to be taken as representing the normal state of things, but simply as furnishing an instructive example of what a school may rapidly be reduced to, in the absence of watchful supervision and kindly interest.*

Stock of books and apparatus often deficient.

VII. Under the heads of the Efficiency of Schools, and the Character of School Buildings and Material Appliances, I have anticipated much of what I might say upon the subject matter of education. I have mentioned the books that are in most general use, and the lessons that appeared to me to be given most successfully. I rarely, if ever, observed any attempt at parade or showiness in teachers; and in the larger proportion of the good schools the instruction given is both useful and sound. The aim of teachers generally, however, plainly is, rather to impart instruction than to develop mental power; to teach a given subject accurately, rather than to train the intellect to teach itself. It is my decided conviction that the pupils who leave our best elementary schools, if they reflect upon their intellectual condition at all, will feel themselves conscious of the possession of *knowledge*, much more than of the possession of *power*. I doubt if many of them, except those who have been pupil-teachers, would feel that they have the capacity to "teach others also." I doubt, even, if they have the capacity to carry on their own education, unassisted, much further. I thus account for the retrograde condition in which after one or two years' absence, they return to the evening school, and for the comparative failure of literary institutions, reading rooms, &c., as

Subject matter of education.

Character of instruction generally given.

* The master of a school in Dorsetshire and the mistress of another in Somersetshire both complained to me of their short supply of books. There was nothing singular in the complaint; but in both cases the managers had been promising additions to the stock for the last six months, rather too large a portion of the ordinary child's school life to leave him without the very materials with which his instruction is to be carried on.

an attempt to meet the intellectual wants of the working classes. The inexpressive character of the reading, the unintelligent way in which the Catechism is apprehended, the disproportionate sense of the value of doctrines and rules of practical life, the imperfect conception of the importance of chronology as an element of history, the set mechanical manner in which arithmetical processes are elaborated, the pupil's mind never seeming able to make a short cut for itself, the apparently superior attractiveness of geography or history to grammar, the strange inexplicable blunders that one finds in an exercise written from dictation,* all are diagnostic symptoms of the same state of things, that the children's minds (to borrow a metaphor of the Dean of Westminster), "are reservoirs, not fountains," receiving what is poured into them from without (and that without much power of discrimination), not bubbling up and flowing over with fresh springs of thought from within. I do not mean that there are not schools, or that I did not see schools and teachers, which have the power of awakening children to the pleasurable sensation that they possess *minds* as well as memories; but I am quite certain that in the majority of the schools that have come under my observation there is very little attempt made to cultivate the intellect as a living, organic, reproductive power.

Object lessons
rare.

"Object lessons," as they are called, are rarely given in rural schools, nor can I imagine that, if given, unless by such a teacher as Mr. With, of the Hereford Blue Coat School, they would be very successful. Many of those that I have heard in the course of my life, for I heard very few in the course of my tour, consisted of little more than an explanation or illustration of sundry scientific, or semi-scientific terms, "opaque," "transparent," "glutinous," &c., &c., which, however appropriate to describe the properties of certain objects, lie entirely out of the range of the ordinary rustic's vocabulary, and which, if he attempts to use, as he has very little idea either of their orthography or etymology, he will probably, like Mrs. Malaprop in the play, transform in a way that will be more ludicrous than edifying. At any rate I am quite satisfied that the agricultural mind generally is not ripe for deriving benefit from object lessons yet. There are neither the teachers to give, nor the pupils to receive, them. I believe that it would be found that it is a very small proportion of the schools in which they are even attempted, even of the schools in which the teachers have been regularly trained and are certificated. We must get our reading, writing, and arithmetic, taught "with strictness and accuracy,"—and people, who are frightened at the

* To illustrate the amount of grammar that is known, even in some of the best schools, I may mention one under a highly certificated master, where the boys in the first class being asked to what part of speech the words "once," "twice," belonged, replied successively, adjective, noun, verb, before they got right. In a school at Malvern, having set an exercise for dictation, in which the words "I determined to illustrate" occurred, when I looked at the slates I only found one child who had written them correctly, and by some of the best the second verb was metamorphosed into "hil is straight," "till is straight," &c., while, in spite of the existence of an "Illustrated Times" and "Illustrated London News" in many a shop window, not a child in the class knew or at least could tell, its meaning.

progress of education, may be re-assured by hearing that we have not got so far as that yet,—before it will be safe to advance to anything loftier and more ambitious. Seeing what I have seen of the condition of the bulk of rural schools, my estimate of the wisdom of their teachers would sink considerably if I found the object lesson occupying a frequent or a conspicuous place in their time tables.

When speaking of the causes of the non-attendance of children, I discussed more or less completely the difficulty which is asserted to exist in dealing with parents whose religious opinions differ from those of the school managers. I said, that from all I saw and heard I was convinced that the amount of the difficulty was infinitesimal; that it scarcely deserved to be considered as a difficulty at all. I am very far from meaning, however, that the character of the religious instruction, or, if the term is preferred, the denominationalism of the school, is a matter of indifference to the managers. In the British schools it is, of course, more neutral than in others, but even there it is largely modified by the personal opinions of the master, and the choice of him depends upon the prevailing local influences. Thus, at Lyme, Dorchester, Chard, Ross, the religious teaching would probably be more or less coloured with the tint of Baptist opinions; while at East Coker and Adninton, where, in each case, the master is a churchman, and the school is visited by the parochial clergyman, the tone of the instruction would be nearly identical with that in a more distinctively Church of England school. Of course no catechism is taught or denominational formulary is used in British schools; but the master of that at Lyme very candidly admitted, that the neutral theory of their constitution is a moral impossibility, and that every man in teaching so solemn a matter as religion, where doctrine is so intimately blended with practice, and practice so necessarily involves doctrine, must teach, if he teaches earnestly, what he himself personally believes. In the three schools in Herefordshire, endowed by the late Lady Southampton, the prescribed basis of the religious instruction is "the Articles of the Church of England Calvinistically interpreted." The management of these schools is vested in a single trustee, a clergyman who resides in another part of England. From what I saw of the teachers I should conclude, that in one case the terms are rigorously complied with, in the other two less strictly. Two of the teachers were dissenters, one was a churchman. The Roman Catholic school at Belmont, near Hereford, admits the children of Protestant parents, and I am told on the distinct pledge of not interfering with their religious opinions; and there were Protestants children being instructed in the school of the same persuasion at Axminster; but one may be quite sure that the religious teaching of Roman Catholic children in those schools is very distinct and positive. And I am quite satisfied, as the result of very careful inquiry, that in Church of England schools, the managers, who, in nine cases out of ten are the parochial clergy, though showing no wish to proselytise, and still

Character of the religious instruction.

less to violate conscientious scruples, are not prepared and would not consent to sacrifice the distinctive teaching of the Church's formularies, as the characteristic feature of the religious instruction, for any consideration whatever. Not that I observed any sectarianism in the teaching of these schools. The catechism is taught dogmatically, not controversially. The children's minds are not impregnated, at that early age, with the bitterness of religious differences, the odium theologicum, but are simply indoctrinated through the medium of the catechism with those primary truths about their privileges, their needs, their helps, their duties, which, in the opinion of churchmen, a Christian man ought to know and believe for his soul's health.* I am speaking of the principles that govern managers and their constitutional influence, not of the effect they actually produce, or the degree in which they discriminate the religious instruction of the schools. This, of course, like the secular instruction, is given with infinitely varying measures of intelligence, and correspondently various measures of success. In some schools, quite of an unpretending rural character, of which I would mention, as samples, the little school at King's Cople, Mrs. Arkwright's school at Hope-under-Dinmore, and the school at Shobdon, the religious knowledge, while thoroughly distinctive, was remarkably accurate and good. In others, I am afraid it must be said in *most*, it was of that parrot-like description, in which sound is allowed to stand for sense, which Mr. Brookfield has humorously, and with too much truth, portrayed in more than one of his reports. But the important question is, with a view to any large schemes of education, not how far the present type of religious teaching is satisfactory—it will improve, as other things have improved, with the improvement of teachers—but how far those, in whose hands the management of elementary schools at present resides, will accept another type. We may dream of a religious platform on which all denominations may meet; we may sigh for a comprehensive creed to which all earnest religionists may subscribe; we may picture to ourselves a scheme of education which, as dealing only with the elements of things, might eliminate points of difference, and retain only those points of substantial piety in which all good men agree; but they are but dreams and pictures after all; and in dealing with the question practically, I am certain, from the temper of men's minds that I found everywhere prevailing, you could not throw overboard religious differences without throwing overboard, at the same time, nearly the whole of the machinery by which the work of education at present is being carried on. It must never be forgotten, in dealing with this question, by whom the work is being carried on; who really give the impulse, direct the move-

* A dissenting minister declaimed to me very strongly, but in perfect kindness, about what he called the meagreness and scantiness of the Church catechism, and contrasted it, very unfavourably, as regards richness of teaching, with the catechism of the Westminster divines. It is strange how far opinions differ, as to what religious diet may be called "milk" and what "strong meat."

ments, sustain the power. They are not the theorists in closets, nor the orators upon platforms; but the thousands of ministers of religion, both those of the Church of England and those of dissenting communities, men, it may be, often with narrow views, and unable, perhaps not anxious, to imbibe broader ones, but of undoubted zeal and earnestness, who are sacrificing, freely and without stint, money, time, and labour upon an object which they believe to be valuable, simply or chiefly because it is religious. Remove, weaken, dilute this predominant motive, and the whole existing framework of national education—for, though somewhat amorphous, it is still national—would collapse and fall to the ground. And the work of destruction would not be compensated by a better work of creation. A fairer world would not rise out of the waters of the deluge. If the existing system were supplanted by a new system, I do not know who, in the 409 parishes that constituted my district, could be found to work it, when the ministers of religion should have ceased to consider it as a distinct branch of their own pastoral duties. Whatever bearing it may have on popular theories it is right that I should express my honest and decided opinion, that an undenominational scheme of education upon the existing basis of religion amongst us is impossible. I have already avowed a similar conviction about a purely secular scheme.

VIII. I have now arrived at the last branch of the inquiry Results of education. which I was instructed to undertake, and must endeavour to lay before your Grace and the Commissioners the estimate which I have formed of the results, moral and intellectual, of education in the district within whose limits the inquiry has been pursued.

1. I have every reason to believe that the value of a good education is becoming more and more appreciated, not only by the labouring classes who are receiving, but by the employers, who at length see the advantage of it. Value of good education more appreciated. Every farmer that I talked to on the subject admitted that he would rather have a carter or a bailiff who could read and write, and keep simple accounts; and the whole body of guardians at Chard unanimously agreed that the prejudice against an educated labourer was rapidly passing away. With more scientific methods of cultivation, more intelligence is required in those who have actually to apply them. It is as well that the bailiff should be able to read the instructions that are sent with the steam-engine, or to register in a book the rotation of crops in each field. I have heard complaints that education had spoilt the race of domestic servants; but if the race is spoilt, I think the result is due to other causes than education,—to the love of change and locomotion generated by the increased facility of communication; to the asserted growing insubordination and love of independence on the part of the rising generation; to the larger demand for females in other employments, *e. g.* gloving, which can be carried on in their own homes; to the multiplied temptations to gaiety, which prove so attractive to the young; perhaps, also, to a greater or less disruption of the tie that used to attach the servant to his master, of

which the whole blame by no means lies on the servant's side. That, as education advances, servants who are contented to be treated as slaves should be less plentiful than heretofore is not a fact that ought to surprise, or even sadden, anyone; and if in these penny-post times they do write rather more letters than their predecessors did twenty years ago, even if they be love-letters (which formed the ground of one lady's indignation, as expressed to me), I think that education may bear the blame, without suffering much in consequence, in the estimation of dispassionate judges.

The baneful custom of hiring servants at statute fairs.

There is, however, a method of hiring servants common in all the midland counties, but less known in the south, which must effectually spoil them; and which every friend of education, who is hopeful of its results, will wish to see die a natural or a legislative death as speedily as possible. I refer to the abominable and demoralizing custom of mops or statute fairs. The custom itself, and the kind and amount of demoralization that necessarily accompanies it, have been so fully described by the Rev. Nash Stephenson, in a paper read before the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, at their second annual meeting (1858), that it is unnecessary for me to enter into revolting details. It is always difficult in England to break through a custom which, though thoroughly vicious, and perhaps passed entirely from its original use, has got the plea of prescription and antiquity on its side. It is not easy to see a reason why the hiring of in-door farm-servants* should stand on a different footing from the hiring of any other class of domestics; or, why a month's engagement should be found a sufficient security for mutual convenience in the one case, while a year's service is exacted in the other. From all I could learn, I believe that no real hardship would be occasioned to anybody, and that the relation between master and servant would be materially improved; more consideration shown on one side, and a more willing service rendered on the other; more value set on a good character, and more anxiety felt to retain a comfortable place; and an important social contract thus be rescued from its present accompanying circumstances of degradation, if, as Mr. Stephenson suggests, the law that governs farm servants, as distinct from other classes of domestics, were repealed, and the custom of hiring for a year, and the custom of holding statutes, were, happily for society, to expire together.†

Unfavourable antagonistic influences.

There is no doubt indeed that the moral and social results of

* I believe that they are only the indoor servants employed in the house or on the farm who are hired at mops. And this fact will account, perhaps, for the non-existence of the evil, at least, to anything like the same extent, in the southern counties, where (whether for good or evil) the custom of taking servants employed in husbandry into the farmer's house has almost passed away.

† In South Wiltshire, Hampshire, Dorsetshire, the three counties with which I am best acquainted, though on most farms there are a certain number of out-door servants, who are hired for the year, statutes, so far as I am aware, are unknown. They are not therefore, necessary means to an end. At Weyhill fair, in Hampshire, a good many of these annual contracts are made, but that is an ordinary business fair, and though, not improving the morals of the neighbourhood—what fair does?—presents none of the special features of a statute.

education are counteracted by innumerable unfavourable influences. I have mentioned one of the principal; the state of the dwellings of the labouring classes, and the multiplication of places of low and vicious amusement, are two others. It ought not to be thrown in the teeth of the educationist, that he can do nothing, or next to nothing, to stem or turn aside the tide of corruption which, as by a necessary law, has, in every period of history, accompanied the progress of civilization. He quite admits that to change men's hearts, and to give the strength which resists temptation, transcends the power of the instrument which he professes to wield. He recognizes, as Socrates recognized, virtue not as a gift of nature, nor as a gift of education, but as a gift of grace. But he is entitled to say, that vulgar and degrading tastes—and a pure taste is a large element, or at least a strong stay of virtue—are more rarely found in those whose minds have been cultivated, than in those who have no intellectual resources; and that though it must be a higher power than his which shall renew the heart, and purify the desires, and strengthen the will, yet is he in his sphere, and in good faith of the result, working *with* that power, and aiding the mind of man, by its intellectual development, to embrace the full proportions of that "truth," which we know, on the authority of the Great Teacher, "shall make him free." It will also, I suppose, be conceded as an axiom, that that form of vice which Aristotle denominated brutishness, and of which he says, that, whatever may be thought of it morally, it is by far the most fearful form socially,* finds its most congenial home in those whose low mental development offers no counterpoise to the force of their animal passions, and whose purely physical notions of pleasure can only realize themselves in the orgies which civilization gathers round her in her train. And therefore, when one clergyman tells me that he finds the candidates for confirmation come to him better prepared, and another that less wanton mischief is committed in his parish, and a relieving officer observes that the manners of children are improving, "they seem more respectful;" and a governor of a gaol informs me that commitments for trial have diminished more than half (in Dorchester gaol, 140 in 1857 against 302 in 1847, and 363 in 1854); and I meet with a troop of children in their play-hour as frank and easy in their manners to a stranger as those I accosted on Longbredy Green; or I contrast the tone, demeanour, and very physiognomy of children in the same place when under discipline and when not; or I observe the marked civility and good manners of a whole village, as at Mathon; or I remark the high religious tone of many of the teachers, and their conscientious devotion to their work: or I hear, as I heard from the clergyman of Upper Sapey, of the wholesome influence carried by children from the school to their homes, and of the children themselves whose career he has watched, turning out remarkably

* Eth. Nicom. Lib. viii, c. 6, extr.

well in after life, I am encouraged to believe that there is a great refining power at work, and at work with considerable success in spite of social and economical disadvantages, and I recognize education, even in its present immature development, as not the least operative of the ingredients which constitute, morally, "the salt of the earth."

Intellectual results.

2. But I was warned by my instructions, that my opportunities of collecting information, bearing upon this subject, would be very limited, and that it was proposed by the Commissioners to pursue this part of the inquiry through other channels. I pass on, therefore, to state, as concisely as I can, the facts illustrating the intellectual results of education which have fallen under my observation.

Education is developing taste.

The extension of education has certainly favoured the spread of taste, using the term now, not with reference to its moral tendencies, but simply as implying a power of appreciating the beautiful, and as evidencing a certain amount of refinement of mind. Congregational psalmody is wonderfully improved, and secular music of a higher style is supplanting the droning ditties which formed the "répertoire" of the rustic vocalist. At the boys' school at Axminster, under the admirable direction of the then master, Mr. Mugford, the singing was really exquisite, quite a treat to listen to; and at Leominster, Bushley, Eastnor, Powerstock, and elsewhere, evident attention is paid to an accomplishment which certainly refines and humanizes, and may elevate. At Lyme, I found the boys in the school busily organizing a band; at Powerstock and Chardstock they have organized one; and at the former of these two parishes I found a custom, which in my experience is quite unique, and might with very good effect be imitated. On the Sunday evening, at 6.30 P.M., the church is lighted in an inexpensive way; the clergyman and his wife go down there; she presides at the organ; fifty or sixty parishioners of all classes and ages make their way there too, and two hours are spent cheerfully, yet quietly and devotionally, in "singing and making melody unto the Lord." I was very forcibly impressed by the scene. What was going on seemed so thoroughly and so unobjectionably to fill up an often remarked and often regretted void.

1. As regards music.

Indeed in the whole of my inquiry I met with no place in which (as it seemed to me) there were so many healthy and effective influences at work, to humanize, and, in the highest sense, educate the people, as in this Dorsetshire village, out of which ten years ago as little good was ever expected to come as out of Nazareth in the olden time.

2. As regards drawing.

I only found drawing taught to such an extent, as to be likely to improve the taste, in very few schools. The British school at Ross is that of which I have the distinctest recollection. But a school of design has been opened at Hereford, where it can have no reference to manufactures, but is simply used as an opportunity for cultivating a graceful accomplishment; and from a statement furnished to me by the master it appears to be popular and thriving. The book-hawkers also find a demand existing, even in country

villages, for a better class of coloured prints; and even beauty of outline is becoming understood and appreciated by eyes which were once attracted only by hideous daubs of red and yellow and blue. The walls of many schools are now hung with pictorial illustrations both of the Scripture story, and of scenes of every day life; and the childrens' eyes unconsciously acquire a truer sense of proportion in outline and harmony in colour.

The enormous circulation of cheap newspapers is an evidence that education is intellectually leavening classes who, twenty years ago, were entire strangers to its influence. You will hardly find a village now in which two or three newspapers do not circulate. At Marden, near Hereford, I fell in with a very intelligent man, a native of Kent, but who had spent the last five or six years in Canada (chiefly in building schools), and who was then engaged as foreman over the work of restoring the parish church, which had stood roofless for eight months and more. We went together to look at the new school, which had also been built under his supervision, and one of his remarks was, "Well, sir, if " education goes on as fast for the next 25 years, as it has done " for the last, this country will be greatly changed. Why then " we knew nothing about what was going on in foreign lands, or " even about what was doing at home; but now every man reads " his newspaper, and all the speeches of our great men in " Parliament. Why, even here, Sir, in Marden, which I call " quite a dark spot, the lads and men all like to get hold of a " newspaper, and since I have been here, and have had some " London papers sent me, you would be astonished to see how " anxious they are to read them."

Education is developing intelligence.

It is true that the intellectual results of education are less satisfactory than its friends could wish them to be, because, except in a few favoured localities, they have absolutely no opportunity of development. Even an efficient night school at present is a rare phenomenon, and a reading-room is hardly anywhere recognized as an indispensable adjunct to the educational appliances of a parish. Yet it is plain that both are required, if primary education is ever to pass on to secondary, and if secondary is to find scope for turning to account the talent which it has required. As it is, we create an appetite, and then suffer the man to die of inanition.

Less completely, however, than could be wished, because the process stops too soon.

Neither the lending library nor the book-hawker adequately furnish what is wanted. The wages of the labourer are too low to allow of his stocking his shelves from the hawker's pack very plentifully; while the shelves of the lending library are sometimes too dreary, sometimes too inaccessible, to be a sufficient stimulant to a nascent taste for literature. Mechanics' institutes and societies for mutual improvement have not thriven in the district through which I travelled, mainly, I suspect, because they have been used by a different class from that for whose benefit they were intended. They have commonly degenerated merely into news-rooms; and I attribute the paucity of working men who use them to the discomfort of which every one is conscious, when

Insufficiency of present attempts to supplement primary education.

thrown upon a company with which he had no natural or social affinities. Something which shall draw like to like is the secret of success; as of clubs for the rich, so of reading rooms for the poor.

Advantage of
parochial read-
ing rooms.

I can affirm from my own experience that the maintenance of a parochial reading room is not a very expensive business. Supposing that we can find a suitable room, and that there are one or two wealthier people in the parish well disposed enough towards the scheme to send down their newspapers for general use on the second day, the annual cost need not exceed 5*l.*, and in a parish large enough to furnish 25 members at 1*s.* per quarter, half of the cost would be borne by the contributions of the members themselves. I am supposing that the room would probably not be used in the two summer quarters.

I am acquainted with several rural parishes in my own neighbourhood, and within a few miles of me, that have reading rooms, but I did not find one in the district within which I pursued this inquiry. At Sherborne, however, before Christmas, Mr. Digby was fitting up, at his own cost, the basement of the Town Hall, to serve as a working man's reading room, and I hope that it has been in successful operation before this.

The night-
school the great
resource for
improving the
intellectual re-
sults of educa-
tion.

I am obliged to admit, therefore, that the intellectual results of education are somewhat lame and impotent, because the supply fails just too soon. I shall despair of seeing any considerable improvement till the night school has assumed its proper position and due development. At present, the adults who frequent it come either to repair the deficiencies of early education, or to recover what has been lost by want of practice, or through lapse of time. Secondary education of the labouring man, except in the languid classes of one or two mutual improvement societies, is a phenomenon that I never observed. And even the primary education of the night school, in most cases, is not much above the level of what is being given to the third class of an ordinarily efficient day school. The great difficulty, as I said before, is not to find pupils, but teachers. The help offered by the Committee of Council is quite inapplicable to the circumstances of country parishes. I have already mentioned that in the whole of my district, out of 121 night schools, I only found one—at Lyme—organized in conformity with the Minutes, or availing itself of their Lordships' aid. In many cases, one has been started by the clergyman single handed, or with such precarious volunteer assistance as he could enlist, and has been dropped again, because the aid fell off, and he found it too heavy a strain upon his own unassisted strength and time. Thus, at Merriott, the Rev. J. H. Evans told me that in the winter of 1856-7 he had a night school attended by 80 males and 70 females, three nights a week by the former, and two by the latter, but that it had been necessarily discontinued from simple want of teaching power, his certificated master not being allowed to be employed there. Itinerating teachers, who should be the common property of two parishes or districts, and keep school three nights a week in each, have been

suggested as solving the difficulty; but I did not meet with a case in which the experiment had been tried, and there are obvious impediments in the way of its success.

I have a suggestion of my own to offer; at least I have never seen it offered elsewhere. I start with the principle that the development of the night school, the placing it on a sound and permanent basis—the making it a place where the education, interrupted by the imperative claims of labour at ten, may be not only kept up, but pushed forward till the pupil is fifteen—is or ought to be the paramount object of those who desire to extend the elementary education of the people. I consider that it demands attention more urgently, and will repay attention more largely, even than the day school. I should be prepared to sacrifice—if it were necessary to sacrifice—something of the efficiency of this, if by so doing I could secure the efficiency of that. I think there is a way in which, if not entirely and in all places, yet to a far greater extent than we succeed in doing at present, we may secure this efficiency. The crucial difficulty is to get teachers. *We must get them from the day school.* There is simply no other source open to us. But how get them? Everybody must admit the reasonableness of the rule of the Committee of Council, that teachers of day schools, who, in addition to five or six hours spent in school, have another hour and a half to spend with their pupil-teachers per day, shall not only not be required, but shall not even be allowed, to take part in the instruction of night schools. It would be too great a strain on their physical strength and intellectual vigour if they were. The work of neither school would be done well. I cannot, therefore, get teachers for my night school, if the day school remains just as it is. I propose that it should not so remain. *I would suspend the day school FOR THE AFTERNOONS of the four, if not the six, winter months; from the beginning of October to the end of March, or certainly from November to February.* My whole staff of teachers, then, whatever its size, masters, mistresses, pupil-teachers, liberated from their two hours' work in the afternoon, having all that time for exercise, recreation, private affairs, would be ready and available for two hours' work from 6.30 to 8.30 in the evening.

The sacrifice in the real power and usefulness of the day school would be infinitesimal. You would still have your three hours of forenoon work clear. Those three hours, well employed, are enough for most purposes of ordinary instruction. In the majority of workhouse schools (of whose general efficiency I have already spoken), in industrial schools,* the children get no more. Anyone who knows much about the inside of schools knows that the atmosphere, the intellectual atmosphere, of the afternoons, is heavy, oppressive, somniferous. I feel pretty sure, that the

Suggestion for placing night schools on a surer and more permanent basis.

* Mr. Jones, of Chardstock School, says he will back his three-hour-a-day "industrials" for quickness of apprehension and amount of knowledge, against any five-hour-a-day schoolboys that he knows; and I have no doubt that he has good grounds for his confidence.

intellectual condition of schools would not retrograde if, for a third of the year at any rate, all the instruction were condensed into the three hours from nine to twelve (or, better still, perhaps, from ten to one*), of the forenoon.

Objection to the plan discussed and removed.

Objections, I am aware, will be started to the details of the scheme. "It sacrifices the needlework." Not necessarily. It may be made, and not perhaps without some advantages, a home lesson during the period of suspension. The work may be cut out, and placed at school; stitched under the mother's eye at home, and brought back for the mistress's approval the next morning. In larger schools, where there is a sewing mistress, and perhaps a female pupil-teacher, the suspension of the afternoon school need not include the girls nor children under eight years of age. I would only, in that case, set the male teachers and the bigger lads free. These lads, if it were thought desirable, might make up their five hours a day by coming to school at night, instead of in the afternoon. They would generally be old enough not to care much about either the time or the distance; possibly, might have neighbours or elder brothers who would accompany them. Their labour, probably, will have been of some use to their parents in the meanwhile. You would perhaps secure a more regular attendance in the morning on this account. If a boy got 18 hours' schooling a week—for under this system I should open school on Saturday mornings—it would be as much as he gets, on the average of cases, now.

Need not diminish capitation money.

"But how it would diminish the capitation grant?" Not, if the Committee of Council—as I have no doubt they would, as they already do in the case of industrial schools—would recognize my three hours' schooling, under these circumstances, as a whole day. And, if so, the capitation grant would be increased, instead of being diminished; for, the night school being thus effectively organized, and put in direct connection with the day school, it would be claimable, under the Minute of July 26, 1858, for all scholars who completed the prescribed amount of attendance there.

Mistresses are found competent to conduct night schools.

"But how would your scheme act in a parish where the day school was only under the charge of a mistress, which is the commonest case?" Not so satisfactorily, perhaps, as where a master is employed; but still, a mistress, with the clergyman to support her and compel respect to her authority, would be found in many instances to be a very competent conductor of a night school. It was a woman that I found conducting the night school at Nether Cerne. The young mistress at Mappowder had a private night school of her own. The mistress at Donyatt another, attended by 25 pupils. Both said they found no difficulty in carrying them on, though, in the latter case, there were quite big lads, and even

* I call these "better" hours, because, where there are pupil-teachers, the master or mistress would be able to give them their instruction, as well as to get all the morning school-work in readiness, before school opened. It is hard, I think, to expect masters, as some people seem to do, to begin work with their pupil-teachers at 6 or 7 a.m.

grown up married men (who were the steadiest of the party), among the scholars. An excellent neighbour of mine, long known in Wiltshire as a successful educationist, the Rev. Richard Webb, of Durrington, has had an admirable night school of 40 scholars at work during the two last winters, which he leaves entirely in the hands of his wife, who he declares keeps it in much better order than he could himself. The vicar of Axminster, a shrewd and judicious observer, sends me this reply to a question which I submitted to him about evening schools. "Evening schools," he says "are *the most valuable of all schools*; and I venture to think that they are the schools to which attention should be most largely directed. For boys of 15 and upwards, and for men (especially for the rougher sort of men, "navvies" &c.), I find the assistance of *ladies* very far more valuable than that of any men, even clergymen. It makes them in a very real sort *gentlemen*."*

I am inclined to believe that teachers generally would like the plan. They would be thankful for the five or six hours which they could thus call their own in a winter's afternoon. They would find the burden of their work considerably lightened by being broken by this interval. They would be sustained by the always pleasurable consciousness of increased usefulness. They would be encouraged by witnessing more permanent fruit of their labours.

No financial objection to it.

The night school, again, instead of being an additional expense, would be an actual source of income. As no greater demand than at present would be made on the teachers' strength or time, no increase of salary could reasonably be expected; while the fees of the night scholars—for the school should not be free—would form no inconsiderable addition to the fees of the day scholars; more than sufficient to defray the cost of lighting.

Would obviate an existing difficulty about the place for holding the night school.

The two schools, again, being thus amalgamated into one, as far as the staff of teachers is concerned, might without objection be held in the same room, and use the same class books and apparatus. Under the present system, an entirely new "plant," so to call it, is often required for the night school, to avoid the collision of two co-ordinate, but independent establishments.

Would obviate an existing difficulty about the place for holding the night school.

* I subjoin two other answers with which I have been favoured, to the same question. They do not illustrate the special point in the text—about the employment of female teachers—but they throw light on the general subject. J. M. Herbert, Esq., to whose warm interest the excellent schools at Goodrich chiefly owe their existence, says, "I found an evening school, which I started in the parish last winter, very popular, and productive of much good. I was, however, obliged to discontinue it, being prevented by the Privy Council regulations from making use of the services of the schoolmaster, and being unable to procure teachers elsewhere. The great inequality of attainments in the scholars who attend, renders necessary a comparatively larger staff of teachers than in an ordinary school."

Mr. Snull, the head master of the first-rate school at East Coker, expresses himself thus:—"Evening schools are seldom successful, owing to the absence of competent superintendents. There is very little difficulty in obtaining scholars, but very great difficulties in procuring good teachers, good discipline and, as a consequence, much progress. I am convinced that night schools have not yet had a fair trial. They should be made a permanent branch of every educational establishment or system, with superior teachers, and recognized by the Privy Council. Till then, little benefit will result from them."

I have now launched my project. I had not developed it even to myself before my inquiry was completed, and therefore I had no opportunity of collecting opinions as to its advisability. It must make its way simply by the amount of assent that it can command on the score of intrinsic reasonableness. But, whether it be accepted by the Commissioners or not, I am quite certain that there is no branch of the great subject of education more deserving of their attention, than the question how best to extend and improve night schools.

Lectures not effective as instruments of secondary education.

I attribute very little efficacy to lectures. They do not attract the working classes; and they are far too desultory and un-systematic, even when arranged in what is called "a course," to do much good to any class. As a rule, they have hardly been attempted in country villages, and if they were, as generally delivered, they would be, as caviare to the multitude, quite unsuited to the taste and comprehension of those who would compose the auditory. At Hazelbury Plucknett, near Yeovil, where popular scientific lectures had at one time been given in the schoolroom by the energetic and zealous clergyman, I found that at the date of my visit a much more appropriate practice had been substituted, the holding, viz., of a sort of conversazione in the schoolroom once a week, which is attended by all classes in the village, and where subjects of common interest are discussed, questions asked and answered, free expression of opinion allowed, and an amount of social intercourse generated, which cannot be otherwise than productive of wholesome results.

Present intellectual results of education unsatisfactory.

It must not be thought, however, from these statements that I rate the intellectual results of our present system of education very high. On the contrary, I am sure that they are miserably, most discouragingly, low. One is almost tempted to give up the work as hopeless when one sees how little fruit it bears. The failure, indeed, is marked enough to give just cause of triumph to the gainsayers. Everywhere one meets young fellows in the field, whose heads perchance were once decently stored with scraps of useful knowledge, but have become after the lapse of three or four years a perfect vacuum again. How should it be otherwise? How would it have fared with the best instructed among ourselves if our education, always desultory and continually interrupted, had abruptly terminated when we were ten years old, and we had had parents who could neither read nor write, and our stock of books at home had consisted of a bible and prayer-book and two or three dull tattered tracts or odd volumes, and no opportunity of subsequently improving ourselves had ever fallen in our way?

The reproach of this must not entirely fall upon our system of elementary or primary education. I have all along borne witness to the efficiency of that system when it is worked with ordinary zeal and ordinary liberality. No doubt, there are plenty of bad schools, not because the system is faulty, but because it is in the hands of narrow-minded or niggardly administrators. A bad school in a parish is a reproach, not on the system, but upon those who live and those who, whether they live or not, have

property there. A bad school is seldom the only evidence of illiberality. You generally find it in company with a bad church, bad cottages, with everything in fact that betokens the absence of public spirit and the abnegation of social responsibilities. It is marvellous what a correct index I almost universally found the state of the school to be of the reported state of the parish; and the state of education, of the state of morals. All would be in perfect keeping; in entire harmony: aye, even to the very character of the squire, the parson, the farmers.

The reproach of the system is in its incompleteness. It is not defective in its primary stage, but in its secondary. It deals fairly with its pupils, while it has them in hand; but it does not keep them in hand long enough. It makes no provision either for the use or for the retention of what it has bestowed. It trusts to children of ten years of age being sufficiently alive to the value of education to keep up their knowledge for themselves; or to parents who, like the six score thousand persons at Nineveh, "can perhaps hardly discern between their right hand and their left," having erudition enough to set them copies and hear them read o' nights at home. For five years longer those boys and girls ought to be at school; if not in a day school, then in a night school; if not for the whole year, at least for the winter months. And then, when you have educated them, you must give them opportunities of using their education. And so the day school must be followed by the night school, and the night school be succeeded by the reading room. To stop short of this is to have your organization imperfect, and your result a failure.

How much of the reproach has to be borne by our present system of education.

IX. I have now travelled, I fear somewhat discursively, through the series of phenomena that I was directed to investigate; and, before proceeding to recommend any measures which have struck me as likely to facilitate the extension of sound and cheap elementary education in an agricultural district, it may be convenient to state the conclusions at which I have arrived, and which I have endeavoured to express with the required fulness and accuracy in the foregoing pages, in a more compact and summary form. They are embraced in the twenty-one following Propositions:—

Summary of practical conclusions.

1. That the work of elementary education is making steady, hopeful, and in some places even rapid progress, but that it rarely travels much beyond the first stage.

2. That, in spite of places still lying in utter darkness, and of others where the means of enlightenment employed are neither very judicious nor very successful, there are rural schools which are not only efficient, but as efficient as schools similarly circumstanced can be reasonably expected to be; that in them the standard of possible education in its primary stage has reached its maximum.

3. That the great source of non-efficiency in schools is the want of adequate funds preventing the employment of competent teachers; and that this want is not to be attributed at all to the

poverty of parishes, but to the lack of interest evinced by (in most cases non-resident) proprietors.*

4. That the non-attendance and irregular attendance of children in agricultural districts originate almost entirely in the low rate of wages compelling parents to use their children's labour the moment that it becomes marketable; and that, not so often in regular as in precarious employment; and only in the rarer cases can they be set down to apathy and improvidence.

5. That all the difficulties which surround the attendance of children do not prevent the efficient schools from being full; that these, therefore, may fairly be considered to have solved and overcome them; and that the great object, consequently, to aim at is to place all schools in a state of efficiency.

6. That an increasing value is being set by parents on a good education; and that the standard by which they measure the worth of what is offered to them under that name is on the whole a sound and practical one.

7. That there is a very earnest and spreading desire on the part of young people whose primary education has been neglected or interrupted to use any opportunities of self-improvement that are subsequently placed within their reach; that night schools, therefore, are almost universally popular.

8. That the present system of education is incomplete rather than efficient, and requires to be supplemented in its second stage, rather than reorganized in its first.

9. That, to this end, the development of night schools, and the addition of reading rooms, are required to complete the idea of an education that shall furnish a supply adequate to the demand.

10. That it may be hoped that parishes which are now indifferent to a great claim will not contentedly sit down and see themselves left, with an unenviable notoriety, in the rear of an advancing civilization; and that there is certainly nothing *in the necessities of the case* to oblige the administrators of central aid to lessen the chances of stirring up local liberality by making concessions to exorbitant demands.

11. That the existing type of education is essentially religious and denominational; and that there appears to be no prospect of any wider or more comprehensive scheme being worked successfully.

12. That the machinery set in motion by the Committee of the Privy Council has given an enormous impulse to elementary education; and that, though somewhat wanting in elasticity, and safely capable of expansion without endangering its fundamental principle, it has securely established itself in the favourable

* The only case in which I should admit the plea of poverty in a parish is, when a parish of small acreage is surrounded by several "close" parishes, which drive their poor into their more open neighbour. In such parishes, I am aware, that the poor-rate sometimes eats up nearly all the rent. In all other cases of merely small parishes, there is a clear 1,000*l.* or 2,000*l.* a year going into somebody's pocket, so that there can be no real poverty.

opinion of all the most earnest and sagacious promoters of education.

13. That private elementary schools, and endowed elementary schools, speaking generally, are not in a satisfactory condition; but that under both heads there exist so many useful and even efficient schools, that it would be both unfair and untrue to throw them as a class under any one general term of description.

14. That trained and certificated teachers, as a rule, are far superior to those who have not had the advantage of the former, and do not possess the qualification of the latter; but it is a rule which has many exceptions; and the training college, though it can develop and direct, cannot give that natural aptitude and ability which is, after all, the highest qualification.

15. That the great deficiency in public schools, particularly in small unassisted public schools, is in teaching power; and that even the smallest number of children necessitates such a division of classes that it is rare to find a teacher with sufficient method to instruct each thoroughly; and that, as a consequence, the condition of the lower classes in most public schools is not satisfactory.

16. That the time lost in the lower classes is the great cause of children's education not being more advanced when the time comes for their withdrawal from school; and that this time, in the case of boys, must be fixed, at the furthest, at the age of ten.

17. That it is possible, nevertheless, under a sound system adequately applied, to have educated a child fairly well for his position in life by that age.

18. That school fees of a moderate amount are not unpopular with parents; and though they do not appear much to affect regularity of attendance, which is much more largely influenced by the efficiency of the school, yet the difficulty of paying them, if ever alleged as a reason for non-attendance, is universally found to be a pretext, and not a real reason; that poverty however, exhibiting itself in want of shoes and decent clothing, is a frequent and very real reason.

19. That sufficient importance is not attached, either by teachers or managers, to the state in which the school registers are kept; that the real condition of the school as regards a great many vital points is, therefore, much more frequently a matter of conjecture than of exact knowledge in the minds of those who ought to be best acquainted with it: and that none of the registers that I have seen in use give the statistical information one expects to find in them, with sufficient distinctness or in an immediately available form.*

* One of the most important facts that one wishes to ascertain at a glance from a Register, is the amount of attendance of each child in the school at any period of the year. It throws more light on the actual history of the school than any other fact. No register that I know contains a column opposite each child's name for carrying on his attendances for each month or quarter to the next month or quarter, and so on throughout the year. Almost all the existing registers are too complex, encumbered with tessellated spaces for a number of unessential entries, which the teachers will not and do not use. A simple comprehensive register, such as might easily be constructed, would be a great boon to schools, and, indeed, to education.

20. That Sunday schools are not prospering, and that there are symptoms prognosticating their gradual decay and final extinction, as a consequence mostly of the progressive improvement of the day school; that this fact, however, does not indicate any decay in the general religious sentiments of the people, but simply that they have transferred themselves to another sphere. I have already asserted that the education given in the day schools is essentially religious. The decay of the Sunday school is chiefly regrettable, as removing a valuable aid in the retention of the knowledge acquired in the day school, particularly the power of reading. Its loss, as a religious influence, will be less sensibly felt.

21. Lastly, that there are certain collateral social questions, such as the state of cottages, the rate and mode of payment of wages, the hiring of servants, &c., vitally connected with the subject of education; and that it is irrational to expect that a single instrument, however powerful, can successfully accomplish the moral or intellectual elevation of a class whose whole condition, civil, social, and domestic, is surrounded by so many unfavourable and depressing influences. Education must still and ever be only one of many weapons in the hand of the philanthropist, by the combined use of which he hopes at length to vindicate for every fellow man his rightful position as an intelligent and responsible being, in a land of light and freedom and civilization.

X. Such, my Lord Duke and Gentlemen, are the more important conclusions to which I have been led by the facts elicited and observed in the process of this inquiry. Before bringing this long and tedious Report to a close, I hope that it will not be out of place, or alien from the duties you imposed upon me, if I lay before you, simply as matters for consideration, the plans that have occurred to my own mind as most likely to be effective, at the same time that they are practicable, for increasing the quantity and improving the quality of elementary education in agricultural districts similarly circumstanced to that which it has been my office to explore.

I need not repeat what I have already urged as to the desirableness of converting weekly school payments into quarterly, or, at least, into monthly; and as to the necessity of developing the night school into an essential and invariable feature of our educational organization. The former I regard as a partial remedy of one of the greatest evils that affect the system—irregularity of attendance; the latter is necessary to give completeness to the system itself. I shall confine my suggestions to three other very simple points:—

1. The creation of district or central schools;
2. The moderate augmentation of all *competent teachers'* salaries, the measure of their competency being the state of their schools, and not their own power to pass a written examination;
3. The increase of the teaching power.

To say a few words on each of these points in order.

1. The creation of district, central, or combined schools (the epithet by which they are distinguished does not make much

Suggestions respectfully offered for the extension and improvement of education.

The creation of district schools.

difference) appears to be the only plan by which the difficulties of small parishes can be met and overcome. When, as is shown in Table II, p. 28, out of 386 parishes, 136 have a population under 200, it is manifest that each can hardly expect to be able to boast of its own school. If it attempts to do so, the result will be a class of schools on which some people expend a very unnecessary outlay of sentiment, "very humble schools," doing a "very humble" amount of good. From what I have seen of the type, I have no wish to multiply the number or prolong the existence of "humble" schools. The sentiment that they gratify is dearly purchased by the stagnation of intellectual life and social progress which they generate. I have seen humble schools that perhaps would not have exhibited any remarkable contrast to their neighbours in the middle of the 18th century, but which seem strangely out of place and out of date in the middle of the 19th. The poet's schoolmistress,—

"In every village mark'd with little spire
Who dwells, in lowly shades and mean attire,
A matron old,"—

is picturesque enough where he has placed her, but is more suited to the poetry of life than to its realities. Schools of this grade break down in the first stage—on the question of finance. Very few people think it worth while or can afford to spend 30*l.* or 40*l.* a year on the education of a dozen or twenty children. They much more commonly make the size of their parish a plea for not having any school at all. Or, if they have schools, they are maintained on such a miserable scale as to be quite unprofitable for any real purposes of education. It is a far wiser plan when two or more parishes combine and maintain a school in as central a spot as may be for their joint requirements. Thus the school at Maiden Newton suffices, and amply suffices, for that parish and for Frome Vauchurch, and it is combined in its management. The schools at East Coker and Montacute, though parochial in their character, are freely used and fully appreciated by a large surrounding neighbourhood. The two Ottersays, though distinct parishes, have a combined school. The school at Ullingswick, in Herefordshire, supplies, though not quite adequately, the wants of the parish of Felton also. The clergyman of Lower Sapey subscribes to the school at Clifton-upon-Teme, that he may have the right of sending the children of his parish there; and Mr. Higginson's school at Tedstone Wafer draws its supply of children from a circle whose radius is at least three miles every way. I could mention many more examples, but these are sufficient to show that the experiment is not an untried nor an unsuccessful one. Of course the adjustment of relations between managers with co-ordinate powers is a point of some delicacy, but in the instances above quoted I did not hear of any disagreements; and it is surprising how easily theoretical difficulties disappear in practice, when none of the parties concerned is anxious to stand stiffly upon his own dignity, but all are actuated by the simple motives of a

wise and large-hearted benevolence. As a general principle always appears to more advantage when illustrated by a case in point, I will mention just one, as a specimen of a state of things, not of very infrequent occurrence, very lamentable in its present aspect, and where the only, or, at least, the only effectual remedy appears to be the erection of a district school.

In the Union of Bromyard there is an area, which must at least cover 16 square miles, occupied by the parishes of Wacton (population, 129); Collington (165); Edwin Ralph (149); Wolferlow, (135); Thornbury, (196); and the hamlet of Hampton Charles, (106); a total of six parishes, with a united population of 880; in none of which is there the vestige of a day school, not even a dame's school, no night school, and hardly anything worthy the name even of a Sunday school.* Some of the children, no doubt, are picked up by the school at Tedstone Wafer, which I have already referred to as a specimen of a district school, and a few more on the other side of the country, by the little and overcrowded school recently established at Grendon Bishop. But there is a large central area absolutely without school accommodation, and I am quite certain that education is literally out of the reach of the majority of children in Thornbury, Edwin Ralph, Collington, and Hampton Charles. At one of these places, an elderly matron, at whose cottage—a wretched tumble-down place, for which she paid 3*l.* a year, her husband, aged 68, meanwhile earning 7*s.* a week—I called to make some inquiry, told me that she had reckoned up 20 poor children of the parish who ought to be at school, but had none to go to; and at another, where the clergyman did not think there were children enough to form a school, as is likely enough to be the case, if it must needs be a parochial school, my clerk and I counted upwards of a dozen idling about the fields and lanes, or gathering spring flowers, as we drove along the road. I cannot pretend to a sufficiently accurate knowledge of the country to determine the best position, but I feel confident that a spot might be selected within the area for a school, which should immediately be filled by at least 50 children. I am sure also, from what I heard the people say, that it would be welcomed as a great boon. At Thornbury I had the good fortune to meet with one of the landowners, Dr. Morris, of Hereford, who quite took my view of the necessities of the case and of their remedy, and at once and on the spot offered a subscription of two guineas for the maintenance of a school, which I have no doubt would be increased if the project were fairly on foot.

2. Extension of the principle of augmentation of teachers' salaries.

2. In pleading for some modification of the conditions on which annual grants of aid are at present offered to schools by the Committee of Council on Education, I start with an assumption, which, however, I believe to be a fact, as the basis of my argument.

* There were insignificant Sunday schools at Thornbury and Edwin Ralph, so insignificant as hardly to be called schools, not 20 children in both together. In the other parishes there was none.

There are said to be about 12,000 parishes in England and Wales. Of these it is probable that there are 4,000, or about one-third of the whole, which belong to the class denominated "small parishes" with a population under 400, and where the maintenance of a school in a state of efficiency is a matter of considerable difficulty. The effect which an additional outlay of 10*l.* or 15*l.* a year, properly distributed, could have upon the condition of the school in such parishes is incalculable. It would raise many of them at once from a state of inefficiency to one, at least, of usefulness. The defects under which the schools in such parishes generally labour are chiefly two:—The salary is insufficient to secure the services of a competent teacher, and there is an inadequacy of teaching power. Each of these defects might, I think, to a great extent be removed, and a vastly superior quality of education offered to about 150,000 children, at a cost to the country, supposing the money to flow from the present central source of aid, of 40,000*l.*, or at the outside 60,000*l.* a year; the lower estimate resting on the supposition of an augmentation of the school funds in each of the 4,000 parishes by 10*l.*, the higher by 15*l.* a year.

I would distribute my money, when I had got it, as follows:—I would augment the master's or mistress's salary, without reference to age and without reference to any written examination, by 5*l.* a year, on the sole condition that the school, in the judgment of the inspector of the district, is in a fair state of efficiency in the three cardinal points—reading, writing, arithmetic. The reading should be distinct, the ciphering accurate, the writing free, compact, and firm. In the case of a mistress, the needlework of her girls should also exhibit neatness and skill. The order and discipline of the school, too, must be satisfactory. These conditions would be quite sufficient to show Parliament that the money of the country was not being wasted; they are quite sufficient, also, in connexion with the pecuniary inducement to give an immense impulse to the improvement of a vast number of elementary schools. Seeing, as I have done, very promising mistresses in charge of schools, with salaries varying from 10*l.* to 20*l.* a year, it is easy enough to calculate the value that would be set upon even so humble an augmentation as 5*l.**

3. But while I augment, conditionally, the teacher's salary, I ^{3. Increase of teaching power} must also increase the teaching power. Without interfering with the pupil-teacher system, which appears to me to be admirably conceived, and to be working very successfully, I can create, by the help of my other 5*l.* or 10*l.* a year, a class of assistants to whom I would give a name that already exists on paper, on the broad sheet of the Committee of Council—but the name, I believe, hitherto without the thing—the name of "stipendiary monitors." One would be sufficient for a school of 30 children;

* The competency of the teachers of workhouse schools is already determined by this kind of test, viz., the condition of their schools. I wish to see the same principle carried further, into the inspection of an ordinary elementary school.

two for a school of 60. They would generally be girls of not less than 12 years of age, who would be bound to serve in this capacity for at least two years, and who taking as the basis of the estimate the sums that I now find ordinarily paid in schools to girls discharging the same function, would consider themselves liberally remunerated by a stipend of 5*l.* a year. They would be quite competent to teach the lower classes, to superintend the writing lesson, and generally to conduct the more mechanical parts of instruction. Their qualifications for the office should be the power of reading distinctly and with expression, of writing boldly and freely, of spelling correctly, and of ciphering, as far as the four first compound rules are concerned, accurately. I should not require the mistress to teach them specially or separately; nor should I bind them to any lengthened period of apprenticeship, or open to them the prospect of a Queen's Scholarship as the natural termination of their school career. I do not contemplate providing the material out of which to shape future schoolmasters and schoolmistresses. The pupil-teacher system will do that. I should simply keep some 5,000 children at school two or three years longer than they would remain under other circumstances; and during that term they would be usefully employed both for their own benefit and the school's.

The combination of these two proposals—a low conditional augmentation of teacher's salaries, and an addition to the teaching power of a school by the employment of stipendiary monitors—would be far more economical to the country, and, I believe, not less effective as a stimulus to education than the costlier but not more practical schemes that have been suggested in other quarters. I have grave doubts whether the taxation of the country could bear the strain that would be put upon it by the extension of the present system of Government aid in its full proportions, so as to meet the requirements, as they are sometimes stated, of "small parishes" and "humble schools." I have seen instances enough in the course of this inquiry where, in spite of all guarantees that have been taken, the money so liberally bestowed by the country for building schools has been spent in vain, and is at this moment bringing in no appreciable return. My own scheme is not expensive, and, if it proved ineffective, it could easily be modified or changed. It would necessarily require an increase in the number of inspectors, and consequently in the expenses of inspection; but this is an increase for which the country must have been prepared, under the mere development of the present system; and, perhaps, with a better disposition of the inspecting force the expense might be considerably economized, or at least not increased nearly in proportion to the advantage. An inspector to a county of the size of Dorset, or even Somerset, if he fixed his home at a convenient centre, would always be accessible for the purposes of consultation, and would find, when they were brought so much nearer to him and to one another than the 300 or 350 parishes, which would be about the number then constituting his district, could be visited more thoroughly and with less labour

—certainly with infinitely less loss of time—than the 150 or 200 that he is now expected to report upon in the course of the year.*

I am inclined to think myself that pupil-teachers should not be apprenticed to any but certificated masters and mistresses. I doubt whether the registered teachers have a sufficient amount of intellectual attainment, whatever may be their powers of school management, to undertake and complete their instruction. I know, from experience, that a very large number of pupil-teachers fail in their examination for Queen's Scholarships; a fact that indicates either great want of diligence in themselves, or great want of capacity in their instructors. Unless, therefore, teachers have proved themselves by examination competent to conduct their pupil teachers' studies through each stage of their quinquennial term, I should recommend the employment of stipendiary monitors only, such as I have described, in the school.

Pupil-teachers should only be apprenticed to certificated teachers.

I think, also, that before an augmentation of a teacher's salary was even conditionally allowed, a certain minimum salary, say 15*l.* in the case of a mistress, and 25*l.* in the case of a master, with house or lodgings rent-free, should be guaranteed by the managers, which (as is now the case with the salaries of certificated teachers) should not be reduced by virtue of the augmentation. These salaries are wretched enough; but teachers, even very competent teachers, as far as elementary subjects are concerned, are found willing to accept them; and there may be a few parishes where it would be difficult to raise more.† It would not be wise to saddle such schools with peremptory and unyielding conditions about boarded floors, a particular arrangement of desks, or a specified extent of area. A school may be doing a good work, though it is defective in all these respects, and the point to be aimed at is rather the soundness of the result than the completeness of the method. Indeed, for so small a boon, small in its cost to the nation, though most precious in its effects upon the school, we are not entitled to be very exacting in our requirements.

A minimum salary to be raised, as now, by managers, as the condition of augmentation.

XI. But this report has extended itself far beyond the dimensions which I had originally marked out for it, and it is high

Conclusion.

* I found in Herefordshire a very general feeling prevailing, both at the Diocesan Board of Education and among individual school managers, that an inspector planted down in the centre of a manageable district would be a much more effective and a much cheaper arrangement than the present plan of assigning to an inspector an area far beyond his physical powers to traverse, and then supplementing him by an assistant. "So much time," people said, "is now lost by mere travelling from point to point—in one end of Herefordshire to-day, at the other end of Oxfordshire to-morrow; and if we want to consult the inspector about any point connected with our school, we hardly know where to find him, nor has he time to pay us a second visit, were it ever so desirable." The county of Dorset contains 240 parishes; Somerset, 463. But inspection districts need not be conterminous with county areas; and if an inspector overlooked 300 parishes, 40 inspectors would dispose of the 12,000 parishes that the kingdom contains.

† As, *e. g.* where the property might be in Chancery; or where, as at Dinedor and Eaton Bishop, it is in the hands of Roman Catholic owners; or where, as at Stockland and Bishop's Frome, it is divided among a great number of small proprietors; or where, as is too frequently the case, after every effort to awaken interest has been made, great proprietors stubbornly refuse to stir.

time to bring it to a close. In writing it I am not conscious of having been under the influence of any prepossessions or any prejudices. I have endeavoured to state, dispassionately and without exaggeration, the condition of elementary education in an agricultural district; its helps, its hindrances; its state, its prospects; its peculiarities, its needs. It must be remembered in what sense the district which I have examined may be called a "specimen district." It was a specimen of the condition under which the work of education has to be done in country parishes, rather than of the success with which in many cases it has been done. In the latter point of view, my district, I believe, must be pronounced to be a sample *below the average*. Even making the comparison within the limited range of my own experience, I should say that it was a backward district, not a forward one. The work is more advanced, more general, more fruitful in Wiltshire and Hampshire than in Dorsetshire and Somerset; in Gloucester than in Hereford.*

I hope that there is no point of importance bearing on the subject thus defined and limited that I have entirely overlooked, and not many to which I have failed to give the prominence that properly belongs to them. If I have too often been betrayed into the expression of opinions, when I was charged simply with the collection of facts, I must plead in justification that it is almost impossible in a statement of facts to avoid stating also the impressions which one has derived from them; and that feelings as well as figures, the moral and even the sentimental as well as the statistical aspects of the question, constitute the basis of information by which the Commissioners will have to guide their judgments and frame their recommendations.

I have not shrunk from saying that, though there is progress, steady, hopeful progress, yet the condition of our elementary education, taken as a whole, is not satisfactory; and that it is not satisfactory, because it is incomplete. But I should deeply regret, I should have failed utterly to express my meaning, if anyone reading this Report should think that I had not made full allowance for real difficulties, or had not appreciated the self-sacrificing generous spirit in which in so many places the work is being done. There are men who are never found upon platforms, whose names are unknown in the great educational world, who are throwing themselves, body, spirit, and purse into this work. There are noble instances of the work being still done, and cheerfully done, under discouragements enough to break many hearts, as a simple duty, for conscience sake, from the "love of the brethren," and not for the praise of men. That there are faint-hearted men who give up the task as hopeless before they

* One, and perhaps the strongest evidence of this is, the extent to which these counties, in proportion to their population, have drawn upon the funds of the Committee of Council. Thus, between the years 1833 and 1857 inclusive, Wiltshire, with a population of 254,221, has drawn 36,343*l.*, while Dorsetshire, with a population of 184,207 has drawn 21,814*l.* Hampshire, population 405,307, received 61,101*l.*; Somersetshire, population, 443,916, has only received 48,731*l.* To Gloucestershire, with 458,805 people, has been voted 67,729*l.*; to Herefordshire, with 115,489 inhabitants, only 11,367*l.*

have ever tried; and cold-hearted men who are too indifferent to try at all; and ostentatious men who will only work where they can get credit for it; and bigoted men who will only work in their own way, and would sacrifice the best interests of thousands to impracticable and visionary crotchets of their own, are facts sad enough when one remembers who are the sufferers by all this, and measures the magnitude of the social interests involved. But they are facts that one would expect beforehand to find. And the energy of benevolence rises superior to them; the work is advancing and prospering in spite of them; year by year more and more soil is reclaimed from the wastes of ignorance and superstition, and brought into cultivation and fruitfulness; and though our social conditions are unfavourable to a high state of intelligence existing among us as a people, I hope, and I see signs for hoping, that the time is not very far distant when every English peasant shall find a good school and a sound education provided for his children within easy reach of his cottage door.

I have the honour to be,
My Lord Duke and Gentlemen,
Your obedient Servant,
JAMES FRASER,
Assistant Commissioner.

To the Commissioners appointed to inquire into
the State of Popular Education in England.

Note.—*Mr. Fraser submitted to the Commissioners a considerable body of notes on particular schools which he had visited, substantiating the different conclusions at which he had arrived in this report; but as these notes necessarily extended very much into personal details, the Commissioners having pledged themselves in their instructions to the Assistant Commissioners scrupulously to respect all private interests, did not feel warranted in including them in their published Report, though they have availed themselves of one or two extracts.*

APPENDICES.

I. ON THE STATE OF EDUCATION IN THE UNION OF DORE,
COUNTY OF HEREFORD.

Dore Union not originally included in the field of this inquiry.

Of the district which has formed the field of this inquiry, the Union of Dore, in the county of Hereford, was not originally a portion. It was discovered, however, though not before a considerable part of this Report was written, that in the Census Returns of 1851 the Union of Dore was treated as incorporated with that of Hereford (in the same way as, in Dorsetshire, Cerne was with Dorchester), and that therefore, for any purposes of comparison and testing progress, the educational statistics of this Union must be collected now.

Features of this Union.

By the directions of the Secretary, being myself engaged in the preparation of my Report, I employed the Clerk, who had been my companion throughout the previous stages of the inquiry, for the purpose. He was occupied in the work from April 30 to May 6 inclusively; and I believe that the returns which he has obtained, though not so complete in all their tables as those which have been received from the other Unions, the time at his disposal only allowing him to collect the information that was immediately accessible, are yet accurate as far as they go, and contain an account of every existing school. This Union, as I gather from his description, presents all the phenomena adverse to education which I have enumerated as characterizing Herefordshire generally, but no fresh ones. They are intensified in degree, not differing or multiplied in kind. The population is more sparse; the roads worse; the landowners, who are generally non-resident, more indifferent; the clergy less active. The difficulties under which the work has to be done, and, in spite of which, I venture to say with adequate energy it might be done, seem in many places to have fairly crushed the very spirit of attempting it. In nearly half of all the parishes in the Union there is neither day nor Sunday school, nor any means of educating the people at all. There is not one night school in the district.* There are only four schools with trained teachers; only two with certificated teachers; only one with pupil-teachers. The per-centage of scholars on the population is only 8·3, or one in twelve; not half of what it amounts to in the Union of Sherborne, and very little more than half of what it reaches in the Union of Ledbury. Twenty-two parishes out of the twenty-nine have a population under four hundred; twelve have a population under two hundred. Dore Union, *in area*, exceeds that of Hereford by 6,808 acres, while it is exceeded by it, *in population*, to the amount of 16,560 persons. The average number of inhabitants to the square mile is 80½; the average of the *county*, in 1851, was 138. The area of it is 74,917 acres; the estimated population 9,392.

Character of the schools.

At the time of my Clerk's visit, the first of the seven Herefordshire harvests—bark peeling—was in full operation, and the population of the district were out in the woods, leaving the schools in consequence nearly empty. It was also the season of the horrible May statute fairs. Only two schools in the Union, both under certificated masters, and one of them with two pupil teachers, appeared to be doing their work

* My clerk could not hear of one; but I am informed that there has been a night school in the parish of Kingstone for the last two or three years.

with respectable efficiency, though there are schools at two other places which may claim for themselves some amount of usefulness.

Besides the parishes mentioned, possessing no educational machinery, there is one in which the National school, though endowed with about 30*l.* a year, has been standing unemployed for the last six months, from inability on the part of the managers to engage a competent teacher; while at another a kind of combined middle and national school, which had been organized by the incumbent, has just broken down and come to an end.

At Peterchurch, with a population of 730, there are endowments, from two different sources and under different trusts, amounting to nearly 180*l.* a year. They support four schools—a church day school of 57 scholars, under a trained master, at a cost of 96*l.* a year; two dames' schools, of 8 and 12 children, each subsidized with 10*l.* a year (somewhat on the same principles on which the endowment is administered at Netherbury, in Dorsetshire), while a Baptist day school is supported by an endowment of 58*l.* a year, under the same trust and management as that which maintains a similar establishment at Fownhope, in the Union of Hereford. The dames' schools are carried on, one of them in the house of a dressmaker, the other in a beershop; neither of them professes to teach more than reading. The trustees of the Church day school are anxious, I understand, to place it under the inspection of the Committee of Council.

Of the 16 public schools in this Union, 10 are under masters, six under mistresses. The two private schools are conducted by very respectable persons, one the wife of a pensioner, the other an ex-female pupil teacher from the Seadamore School at Hereford, the state of whose health did not allow her to pursue her education at a training-college. The school returned as a middle school is in the parish of Kingstone, and is attended by twelve children.

There is no school in the workhouse at Dore, as a regular feature of the establishment; but if there happens to be a tolerably large hatch of children in the house, a mistress is temporarily engaged to instruct them. When the number is reduced she is discharged, and the three or four scholars who remain are sometimes sent, considerably, I should imagine, to their advantage, to the workhouse-school at Hereford. No Workhouse school.

The picture, it must be confessed, when we have grouped all these details into a whole, is dreary enough; but it does not present any circumstances, either possessing an exceptional significance, or demanding an exceptional treatment. Even with an enormous outlay of public money—I mean enormous in relation to the area covered and the results expected to be achieved—it is difficult to believe that any radical improvement in the education of the district would be effected till a livelier local interest, on the part both of clergy and laity, has been awakened. Such a district will necessarily always be more or less in the rear of its contemporaries. Its very physical configuration, the sparseness of its population, are powerful obstacles in the way of progress; and the educationist will often be forced to acknowledge himself beaten by the uncompliant intractable nature of the materials with which he has to deal. But the district, hitherto, does not seem to have had so much as a chance. With the single exception of the parish of Michaelchurch, where a gentleman who has recently purchased the property has made considerable efforts to improve the habits and illuminate the minds of the peasantry, it has lain, as it were, out of the track of the philanthropist; and there broods over it, in consequence, a cloud of intellectual darkness, not denser, perhaps, than what I have observed resting on neglected places elsewhere, but broader, with fewer interpenetrating streaks of light, more sullen, more immovable.

The subjoined Table shows the statistics of the Union at a glance.

STATISTICAL VIEW of the EDUCATIONAL CONDITION of the UNION of DORE.

Number of Parishes.	Area in Acres.	Estimated Population.	Number of Persons to Square Mile.		Number of Day Schools.				Number of Parishes without either Day, Night, or Sunday School.	Number of Sunday Schools.		Number of Parishes without Sunday Schools.	Number of Night Schools.	Number of Certificated Teachers.	Number of Teachers not certified.	Number of Schools employing Pupils Teachers.	Per-centage of Scholars in the Day Schools on Population.	
			Under 200.	Under 400.	Public Elementary.	Private Elementary.	Workhouse.	Middle.		Church.	Nonconformist.							
29	74,917	9,302	80	12	22	16	2	—	1	34	10	2	18	1	2	2	1	8.3 or 1 in 12.
						Number of Scholars belonging.				With a Population of	Scholars belonging.							
						720	49	—	12	2,233	410	60						

II. PRIZE SCHEMES.

Influence of Prize Schemes.—Nearly the whole of the district which formed my province is under the operation of prize schemes; and when the Salisbury diocesan scheme is at work, as it is hoped it will be next year, the whole will be. The Honiton Local Board's scheme is operative in the Union of Axminster; the Bath and Wells' scheme comprehends within its sphere the Unions of Yeovil and Chard. The Hereford diocesan scheme embraces my five Unions in that county. The Worcestershire scheme makes itself felt in the Union of Upton-on-Severn.

I quote from some correspondence with which I have been favoured, in relation to the Honiton Board's scheme, because it illustrates several points touched upon and views expressed in my report.

The Rev. N. Herbenden, of Broadhembury, the secretary, writes as follows :—" We have had two examinations: the first, October 1857, the other in May 1858. There has been hardly sufficient time yet to judge how far these examinations tend to induce children to remain longer in their schools, but from the interest they have excited, both among the masters and the boys, we cannot but augur favourably. Some of our Board at one time wished to fix the age at which the boys might be candidates higher than we have done. But we found that we should have too few candidates if we did not allow them to compete at 10. The children of agricultural labourers can rarely be induced to remain at school after the age of about 11. I myself doubt the desirableness of pressing this point too strongly on those who in after life are to be agricultural labourers themselves. A boy of fair capacity, kept regularly at a good school up to the age of 11, or even 10, must have acquired as much knowledge as is needful for him afterwards; and our object should be to induce him to keep what he has learnt when he has left school. You will see by our printed circular, that this has been one of our Board's objects in offering prizes."

The Rev. J. F. Mackarness, rector of Honiton, an active supporter of the scheme, sends me this account of its working :—" You will observe that this scheme is *very small* in area of county, in population, and in amount of prizes*—probably the smallest, as to the two latter particulars, that has been set on foot in England. The three small towns of Honiton, Sidmouth, Axminster, scarcely take our district out of the rank of a purely agricultural sphere. It is under the entire direction of our local board, and therefore shows what may be done anywhere.

" You will notice that one village school, Broadhembury, quite equalled the town schools. No marked superiority of the town boys has appeared; but many small villages round us, and even some large ones, have no school.

" The first class answered nine-tenths of the questions in arithmetic, wrote fairly, and were able to spell correctly. Very little geography or grammar was done. One boy only showed anything like style in his composition. Between the first and second class there was a great deal of difference in attainments."

* The whole expense, in 1858, was 21*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.*, of which about 18*l.* was spent on prizes,—8*l.* in books and cards, and 10*l.* in money.

I quote one more extract from a letter of the Rev. R. S. Hutchings, of Monkton Wyld, who was one of the examiners :—

“My impression is that the majority of the entire number of candidates (which, as well as I can recollect, was 67,) was furnished by Sidmouth, Axminster, and Honiton. I found, however, and this rather to my surprise, that, as regards the quality and amount of their attainments, there was not that difference between town and country candidates that I should have expected. The boys from Mr. Herberden's parish, Broadhembury, did on the whole distinguish themselves most, and the boys from Axminster came next. The area to which the scheme extended was that included between the points Sidmouth, Ottery, Axminster, Upottery, Broadhembury. The standard of attainment reached by the candidates generally was a very creditable one, and such as would, I believe, have been looked for in vain, except in one or two crack schools here and there, a very few years ago. The answers in religious knowledge, English history, and geography were very satisfactory. Some of the boys did very well in arithmetic, but I think the generality hardly came up to the standard that might fairly be required. Grammar was decidedly the weakest point, but few even attempted it. Reading and writing were very good, especially the former, and the spelling fair. Some boys' papers were well expressed, but the generality evidently needed more practice in composition, and no doubt found themselves very much hampered by the difficulty they felt in expressing themselves. A *ritá roce* examination would have been a much fairer test of the amount of their *knowledge* of the various subjects, than one conducted, as this of necessity mainly was, on paper. But one good effect of such examinations will be to direct the attention of the masters to this important point. The interest and emulation they excite is evidenced by the fact of the increase of the number of candidates from 40 in 1857 to 67 in 1858. The prizes were books and cards of merit, and they were presented publicly about six weeks after the examination.”

The conditions of examination were, that the candidates must be boys of 10 years of age and upwards who have attended any parochial school 300 half days during the past year, and boys of 12 years of age who have attended a Sunday school 45 Sundays in the past year, or have been at a night school 30 nights in the last six months, and can produce certificates of good character from their schoolmaster or employer, countersigned by the clergyman of the parish.

In the report of the October examination 1857, the examiners remarked that there was “a general deficiency in writing, and a want of facility in answering questions on paper. They had found all the schools deficient in arithmetic, with the exception of Broadhembury. The reading of the boys was generally satisfactory, as was also their Scripture knowledge, but their explanation of the Parables had shown less intelligence than might have been expected.” Ten boys received prizes in the first class, of whom one was 14, three 12, five 11, and one 10 years of age; in the second class there were 14 prize boys, one of 15, one of 13, two of 12, four of 11, and six of ten years; in the third class eight were successful; one 15, one 12, four 11, and two 10. Four of the ten prizes in the first class were carried off by Broadhembury boys; only one by a town boy, from Honiton National school.

In the Worcester Prize Scheme, on the contrary, the town boys appear to have carried off the flower of the honours. Of 25 prizes awarded in 1858 for religious knowledge, 20 were carried off by candidates from town schools; of 12 prizes for arithmetic and general knowledge, 9 found their way to the same class of recipients. Of

474 candidates classed by name, 307 are sent by the same grade of school. The number of candidates in 1858 was 585 from 57 schools. Only four schools in the Union of Upton-on-Severn sent up competitors, viz., Upton, Bushley, Kempsey, and Severn Stoke.

The scheme is characterized by its promoters as a success, and a success in a main point in which success is valuable, viz., as contributing to prolong the period of boys' attendance at school. "The master of one of the schools which supplies candidates informed us that, whereas in 1854 he had only 27 boys of 10 years old and upwards, now he has 80. And in 1856-7 Mr. Lea, carefully taking the results on three schools under the scheme's operation, found that the age of the first class had gone up from 10 years 8 months to 11 years 5½ months, and the numbers in the schools from 306 to 517." (Extract from a paper read by the Rev. D. Melville before the Social Science Association.)

The sphere of this prize scheme is the Archdeaconry of Worcester, which is divided for the purpose into three districts. The amount subscribed for money prizes is considerable; in 1857 it amounted to 257*l*. A passage in the Report of the scheme for 1858 illustrates what I have said in the text of the difficulty of maintaining such stimulants *en permanence*. "In the present year, 1858," says the document, "owing to the great increase in the number of candidates *being unaccompanied by a proportionate increase of subscriptions*, it is feared that it will be necessary *in all the districts* to diminish the value of the money prizes."

The increase in the number of competitors certainly is remarkable. Here are Mr. Melville's statistics:—

Year.	Kidderminster Candidates.	Worcester Candidates.	Warwick Candidates.	Total.
1854	77	—	—	77
1855	87	—	—	87
1856	136	67	—	203
1857	157	156	81	394
1858	183	258	144	585

The special feature of the Hereford Diocesan Prize Scheme is a double examination, viz., a district examination within easy distance of every school, and a *vivâ voce* examination in a central place, which all the children, whose papers in the first examination reach a certain standard, shall be invited to attend. Prizes are given for success in both examinations, but the more valuable prizes are attached of course to the latter. An additional stimulus is given to teachers in this scheme by a rule which provides that it shall be at the discretion of the examiners to present some mark of approval to the teacher of any school, which the children who present themselves for examination prove to be in a very efficient condition.

I met with an instance in this county of the way in which I have said in the Report, that such stimulants might be expected to act. At

a school, where everything was in a rather backward condition, and irregular attendance was loudly complained of; I was shown a little girl who either *had* gained, or *was expected* to gain, a prize (I forget which) in the diocesan examination, of whose performance under some questions that I put to her, I have made this memorandum: — “Charlotte Faulkner read very well, and knew something about fractions, but she was the show girl of the school.” It would be a most imperfect test of the efficiency of a school to measure it by the performances of three or four of its scholars at an examination.

I understood from one of the examiners under this scheme, that the children from Much Marcle and Bosbury schools acquitted themselves best in the examination. In those two cases, certainly, the distinction was not purchased at the cost of the general well-doing of the school, though I must also add that, though both schools are efficient, they hardly realized my anticipations of the state of things that I should find in the schools that had turned out the first prize scholars in the county. As farmers sometimes say of corn, “the sample was better than the sack.”

III. TABLE SHOWING THE SOURCES OF VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS.

I now append the Table referred to in the Report, p. 53. It is there said that *all* the returns bearing on this subject are given, which are made in a sufficiently complete form. It is no mere selection of extreme cases, but a genuine picture of the financial state of the schools in 168 parishes out of the whole number traversed. Time being precious, the Table used in framing this return was not issued at all in the Union of Dore. It will be seen that the Unions are represented with different degrees of fulness. In every case the statements are vouched for on the authority of the school managers.

TABLE showing the Sources of the Voluntary Contributions in support of 168 Schools; the Number of the Contributors; the Amount contributed; and its Ratio to the Rateable Value of Property, &c.

Union.	Parish.	Rateable Value of Property.	Average Annual Cost of School.		Amount of Voluntary Contributions from								Remarks.	
			Parochial Clergyman.	Lay Tithe and Land Owners.	Land Occupiers.		Householders.		Others.					
					Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.		
SHERBORNE.	Bradford Abbas	£ 2,916	£ 83	£ —	1	£ 40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	School supported by Mr. Clayton.
	Bishop's Caundle	1,948	22	12	1	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Deficiency made up by clergyman. Supported by G.W. Digby, Esq.
	Chetnole	1,618	31	—	4	3	1	1	—	—	—	7	6	
	Folke	2,165	14	10	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Haydon	777	27	—	1	25	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Leigh	2,309	37	10	—	11	—	—	—	—	—	1	5	
Totals	11,723	214	32	8	81	1	1	—	—	—	8	11	Carried on.	

Union.	Parish.	Rateable Value of Property.	Average Annual Cost of School.	Amount of Voluntary Contributions from								Remarks.		
				Parochial Clergyman.		Lay Tithe and Land Owners.		Land Occupiers.		Householders.			Others.	
				Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.		Number.	Amount.
SHERBORN—cont.	Brought on—Longourton -	11,723 1,492	214 50	32 10	8 4	91 8	1 —	1 —	— —	— —	— —	8 11	Deficiency made up by clergyman. Entirely supported by clergyman. The rector and squire, who are brothers, divide the cost.	
	Marston -	1,933	34	30	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Nethercompton -	3,292	67	27	1	27	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Poyntonton -	1,479	34	15	1	29	2	3	—	—	—	—		
	Riampton -	2,122	13	5	3	7	—	—	—	—	—	5		
	Ryme -	1,250	6	3	1	5	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Sandford Orcas -	2,236	25	4	6	16	1	1	—	—	—	—		
	Yetminster -	2,314	39	5	1	13	—	—	—	—	—	1		
	Trent -	2,223	45	34	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1		
	Thornford -	1,501	19	1	3	12	—	—	—	—	—	3		
DORCHESTER.	Admiston -	672	77	—	2	40	1	1	—	—	—	8	The two landowners make up deficiency. — — — Entirely supported by rector. — Entirely supported by B. Williams, Esq. — — The squire and rector share the cost in the proportions stated. — The squire and the vicar divide the cost. — Supported by Captain Damer. Entirely supported by rector. The land occupiers subscribed 37. to the Sunday school before the day school existed.	
	Bradford Pe- verell -	2,355	36	5	1	15	3	3	—	—	—	1		
	Chilfrome -	1,161	5	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	1		
	Compton Abbas Compton Val- lence -	962 1,425	5 87	5 87	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Long Bredy -	1,105	60	25	6	30	4	4	—	—	—	1		
	Little Bredy -	2,578 1,432	35	—	1	35	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Maiden Newton	4,948	105	28	—	13	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Piddletinton -	2,456	22	6	3	5	—	—	2	1	—	—		
	Puddletown -	8,832	14	—	2	12	5	3	7	19	—	4		
	Stinsford -	2,559	39	15	1	25	—	—	—	—	—	—		
CERNE.	Tincleton -	1,314	50	—	1	50	—	—	—	—	—	—	The squire and the vicar divide the cost. — — Supported by Captain Damer. Entirely supported by rector. The land occupiers subscribed 37. to the Sunday school before the day school existed.	
	Tolpuddle -	2,123	33	16	1	16	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Toller Por- cum -	3,107	27	1	1	2	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	West Stafford Whitecombe and Came -	2,600 3,132	29 25	5 —	1	25	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Winterborne Abbas -	2,726	26	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Winterborne Martin -	3,552	23	8	2	7	6	3	1	1	1	3		
	Woodsford -	1,334	23	20	2	10	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Aiton Pancras	2,135	28	16	2	3	1	1	—	—	—	—		
	Brickland Newton -	8,050	60	16	1	5	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Cattistock -	4,271	85	63	1	1	1	1	5	6	—	—		
Chiselborne -	2,347	33	33	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—			
Totals -	99,321	1,460	535	57	518	25	21	16	28	31	46	Carried on.		

Union.	Parish.	Rateable Value of Property.	Average Annual Cost of School.	Amount of Voluntary Contributions from								Remarks.	
				Parochial Clergyman.	Lay Tithe and Land Owners.		Land Occupiers.		Householders.		Others.		
					Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.		Amount.
CERNE—cont.	Brought on -	£ 99,531	£ 1,460	535	57	£ 519	25	21	16	£ 23	31	£ 49	The squire and the rector are brothers, and share the cost in these proportions. Entirely supported by Lord Ditchy. Supported by the lay rector, I. E. Bridge, Esq. Whole cost borne by clergyman.
	Godmanstone -	1,297	23	2	2	4	3	—	—	—	5	8	
	Hermitage -	897	9	4	2	13	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Melcombe } Horsey }	2,198	27	10	1	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Minterne -	2,675	33	—	1	30	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Piddletrentithe	4,400	87	—	1	85	—	—	—	—	—	—	
BEAMINGSTER.	Pulham -	2,787	18	18	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	There is an endowment of 30 <i>l.</i> The vicar makes up the rest. Entirely supported by Mrs. Cox. The living was vacant at the time the return was made.
	Wootton } Glanville }	2,147	25	10	1	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Broadwindsor	8,954	42	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Cheddington -	1,209	13	—	1	13	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Hook -	1,389	30	—	2	10	1	2	—	—	2	10	
	Mapperton -	1,311	13	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Marshwood -	4,487	25	10	1	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Netherbury -	12,902	41	20	—	7	—	—	—	4	—	1	
	Melpash -	—	22	17	—	—	1	2	1	3	2	1	
	Poorstock -	6,603	117	40	8	28	3	2	—	—	—	—	
Rampisham -	2,544	63	13	1	6	—	—	—	—	2	4		
AXMINSTER.	Axmouth -	4,230	54	13	1	1	3	6	—	—	1	5	Any extraordinary expense is borne by the vicar.
	Charmouth -	2,309	40	25	1	5	—	—	—	—	15	10	
	Hawkchurch -	3,878	27	8	4	16	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Kilmington -	2,750	24	5	2	9	—	—	—	—	1	4	
	Membury -	3,497	27	5	6	6	—	—	—	—	1	4	
	Shute -	2,280	22	2	1	19	—	—	—	—	—	—	
CHARD.	Thorncombe -	5,773	15	—	1	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	Chiefly maintained at the cost of Sir W. Pole. The girls' school is supported by Mrs. Brance, of Sadborough. Cost entirely borne by the rector.
	Uplyme -	2,694	53	53	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Ashill -	2,674	24	—	1	12	—	—	—	—	1	5	
	Buckland St. } Mary }	3,178	60	—	2	9	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Combe St. Ni- } cholas }	5,132	173	10	9	19	25	6	2	6	6	2	
Donyatt -	2,120	25	5	1	5	3	2	—	—	—	—	Difficulty is found in getting in the subscriptions here.	
Totals -	195,335	2,369	827	107	853	64	43	19	41	67	100	Carried on.	

Union.	Parish.	Rateable Value of Property.	Average Annual Cost of School.	Amount of Voluntary Contributions from								Remarks.		
				Parochial Clergyman.	Lay Tithe and Land Owners.		Land Occu-piers.		House-holders.		Others.			
					Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.		Amount.	
CHURCH—cont.	Brought on	£ 195,535	£ 2,569	£ 627	107	£ 858	64	£ 48	19	£ 41	67	£ 100		
	Dowlish Wake	1,826	27	33	1	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Chalcombe	1,074	8	13	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Hinton St. George.	3,234	5	—	1	5	1	1	1	1	—	—	—	—
	Ilton	2,220	22	19	1	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Kinestone	1,023	11	—	2	4	2	1	3	1	1	1	1	—
	Merriott	8,000	123	6	25	15	12	4	2	1	—	—	—	—
	Wambrook	1,793	15	—	6	5	7	2	1	1	5	3	—	—
	Wayford	1,887	13	4	3	8	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	—
	Winsham	4,156	19	9	1	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Varcombe	} 3,522	} 52	—	1	23	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
White Staun-ton			} 31	10	1	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
White Staun-ton	1,446	7	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	—
VIOVILL.	Chinnoek (West)	3,611	32	5	1	2	3	3	3	3	1	2	—	—
	Closworth	1,295	4	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Coker (West)	3,252	35	5	6	5	—	—	—	—	4	8	—	—
	Chilton Cantilo	1,481	32	6	1	6	—	—	—	—	1	7	—	—
	Chilthorne	1,400	8	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Camel (West)	2,240	19	8	4	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Hardington	2,228	32	28	3	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Hasebury	2,744	54	10	6	14	4	5	2	5	2	6	—	—
	Lichester	1,866	22	1	2	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Lumington	2,883	24	5	6	9	—	—	—	—	3	2	—	—
	Mudford	3,501	26	3	9	14	5	2	—	—	1	1	—	—
	Martock	} 13,584	115	5	5	3	—	—	—	14	3	—	—	—
	Ash		22	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	—	—	—	—
	Montacute	3,003	176	15	2	36	7	2	3	5	—	—	—	—
	Norton	1,567	20	—	1	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North Perrott	1,755	25	11	1	4	—	—	—	2	20	—	—	—	
South Pether-ton	6,606	36	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Tintinhull	2,886	13	—	2	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Yeovilton	2,730	23	17	2	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Totals	285,627	3,641	1,075	201	1,083	107	65	53	84	86	132		Sherborne District.	

Deficiency (114*l.* on last two years) borne by the vicar.

The clergyman bears every deficiency. Supported by Sir Trayton Drake.

The Sunday school costs about 7*l.* a year.

Deficiency made up by clergyman.

Do. Do.

Deficiency made up by rector.

Deficiency (very large) made up by clergyman.

The rector gives the house rent free. These subscriptions include the Sunday and evening schools.

The girls' school is entirely supported by the clergyman.

Union.	Parish.	Rateable Value of Property.	Average Annual Cost of School.	Amount of Voluntary Contributions from								Remarks.			
				Parochial Clergyman.		Lay Tithe and Land Owners.		Land Occupiers.		Householders.			Others.		
				Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.		Number.	Amount.	
MEREFOED.	Breinton -	£ 2,043	29	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	<p>Rector pays all deficiencies.</p> <p>Entirely supported by clergyman.</p> <p>The incumbent of Stoke Edith makes up deficiencies.</p>	
	Burghill -	5,280	75	3	6	23	1	1	—	—	—	—	—		
	Birch (Little) -	1,009	70	50	2	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Cleghonger -	2,070	75	—	1	50	—	—	—	—	—	—	1		25
	Callow -	1,225	13	2	1	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—
	Dinedor -	3,458	10	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—
	Dewchurch (Much) -	4,564	50	12	3	15	—	—	—	1	2	—	—		—
	Dewchurch (Little) -	1,708	28	23	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—
	Eaton Bishop -	3,403	45	20	2	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	2		6
	Holm Lacy -	3,710	24	5	1	30	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—
	Holmer -	6,900	32	2	12	37	9	12	5	4	3	3	—		—
	Hampton } Bishop }	6,162	15	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—
	Hide (West) -	1,368	25	15	2	3	1	3	—	—	—	1	1		—
	Mordiford -	2,100	37	4	2	16	5	7	—	—	—	3	2		—
	Sutton St. } Nicholas - }	1,920	30	—	2	2	3	3	—	—	—	—	2		2
	Lugwardine -	4,417	60	8	3	10	2	5	—	—	—	—	—		—
	Withington -	2,832	36	1	6	7	4	3	3	3	—	—	—		—
Weston Beg- } gard - }	1,427	39	3	2	21	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
ROSS.	Brampton } Abbots - }	2,344	30	10	1	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Ballingham -	4,045	24	5	1	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Bridstow -	4,242	33	10	10	12	4	2	3	3	1	1	—	—	
	Brockhampton -	1,217	10	5	7	3	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Foy -	3,716	24	3	2	10	5	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Goodrich -	4,635	104	5	2	15	4	16	—	—	—	6	6	—	
	Hentland -	4,711	92	5	1	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Llangarren -	6,937	32	6	6	19	6	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	
	Marstow -	1,289	18	6	4	4	—	—	1	2	—	—	—	—	
	Lea -	1,252	22	20	1	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
King's Caple -	3,106	23	1	2	10	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	—		
Llanwarne -	2,272	70	10	3	17	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	—		
Peterstow -	2,600	30	27	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Upton Bishop -	3,804	38	10	5	12	—	—	—	—	—	2	3	—		
Walford -	4,975	28	5	3	8	4	3	2	6	3	3	—	—		
„ Warryfield		22	—	1	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
St. Weonards -	4,115	23	4	4	3	3	2	1	1	—	—	—	—		
LROMINGBER.	Bodenham -	6,172	55	20	8	14	4	3	3	2	—	—	—	<p>School is being dis continued.</p> <p>Carried on.</p>	
	Docklow -	1,382	15	—	1	11	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Humber -	1,188	20	8	1	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Hope sub } Dinmore - }	1,922	34	—	3	9	—	—	—	4	11	5	6		
	„ -	27	—	—	1	27	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Kingsland -	6,770	40	15	3	6	—	—	—	—	—	1	5	—		
Totals	127,979	1,510	355	115	461	56	69	26	55	33	66	—	—		

Union.	Parish.	Rateable Value of Property.	Average Annual Cost of School.	Amount of Voluntary Contributions from								- Remarks.		
				Parochial Clergyman.	Lay Tithe and Land Owners.		Land Occupiers.		Householders.		Others.			
					Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.	Number.	Amount.			Number.	Amount.
LEOMINSTER.— <i>cont.</i>	Brought on Monkland	£ 127,979 1,640	£ 1,510 47	£ 355 13	113 3	£ 461 7	56 6	£ 69 5	26 —	£ 55 —	33 3	£ 60 3	About 12 <i>l.</i> is collected at the of-fertory. In 1858, 17 <i>l.</i> was collected at the of-fertory. Entirely supported by rector. The landowner and rector are brothers, and share the cost in these proportions. — —	
	Orleton	2,965	52	10	8	20	—	—	—	—	2	2		
	Puddleston	1,695	54	52	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Shobdon	3,762	75	15	1	50	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Stoke Prior Yarpole	3,015 3,734	12 72	4 5	3 10	5 36	— 19	— 11	—	—	—	3 3		—
BROUYARD.	Bishop's Frome	3,935	80	50	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	With the exception of an endowment of 15 <i>l.</i> , entirely supported by vicar. Rector makes up any deficiency. — Supported by Mr. Higginson, of Saltmarsh Castle. — — —	
	Cradley	6,254	78	45	5	5	2	2	—	—	2	2		
	Ocle Pitchard	1,195	9	2	5	6	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Pencombe	2,700	33	20	1	5	—	—	—	—	1	1		
	Tealstone Wafer	514	65	—	1	55	—	—	—	—	—	—		
LEDBURY.	Upper Sapey	2,105	14	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	The landowner is also a clergyman—Rev. J. Hopton, of Canon Frome. — — Supported by Lady Emily Foley. Deficiency raised among rector's personal friends. — — —	
	Ullingswicke	1,440	20	5	4	5	4	2	—	—	4	3		
	Whitbourne	3,862	51	10	3	12	7	7	—	—	1	3		
	Ashperton	1,669	90	15	1	35	5	5	1	5	—	—		
	Bosbury	6,696	51	10	7	18	—	—	—	—	—	—		
UPTON-ON-SEVERN.	Downington	1,167	16	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Entirely supported by Mr. Dowdeswell, of Pull Court. — — The rector makes good deficiencies. — —	
	Stretton	1,249	31	10	1	30	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Grandsome	1,249	31	10	1	30	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Tarrington	2,772	53	—	1	30	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Much Marcle	7,893	161	5	6	18	—	—	1	1	—	—		
UPTON-ON-SEVERN.	Putley	871	40	24	1	3	—	—	—	—	1	5	— — — — —	
	Woolhope	5,119	41	3	1	1	3	30	—	—	1	5		
	Yarkhill	1,563	30	2	4	15	3	2	—	—	2	1		
	Bushley	2,094	100	—	1	83	—	—	—	—	—	—		
	Earl's Croome	2,829	42	10	6	27	—	—	—	—	—	—		
UPTON-ON-SEVERN.	Powick	9,767	99	3	6	74	—	—	15	21	2	2	— — The rector makes good deficiencies. — —	
	Bipple	4,549	60	10	1	6	—	—	4	4	—	—		
	Severn Stoke	6,200	78	10	3	37	6	2	1	2	—	—		
UPTON-ON-SEVERN.	Welland	2,826	17	5	—	—	—	—	1	4	—	—	— —	
	Total	223,268	3,020	767	198	1,044	110	135	49	97	55	96		
	Total	253,627	3,641	1,075	201	1,083	107	65	53	84	86	132	Hereford District. Sherborne District.	
	Totals	508,895	6,661	1,782	399	2,127	217	200	102	181	141	228		

IV. MODE OF EDUCATION ; GOVERNMENT AND INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS.

Constitution of schools.

It is very rare that schools built without assistance from Government, and so relieved from the necessity of trust deeds, have any formal constitution. The almost universal description of their management is, that they are under the control and direction of the parochial clergyman. Endowed schools, of course, are, *quod* the endowments, under trustees ; and British schools generally have a committee, but the great bulk of parochial schools are in the hands of the clergy. Indeed, if the clergyman did not undertake the management, there would be none at all. In the majority of parishes there are not many other persons competent, and still fewer willing. It is surprising when one recollects what a common piece of conversational sentimentalism it is, to enlarge upon the duty of educating the people, to find, when one comes to look into facts and to ascertain the actual state of things, how few individuals are really taking part in the work, even as contributors of money, still less as contributors of labour or of time. A few laymen who have founded schools, as Mr. Ricardo at Berrow, Dr. Henry at Haffeld, Mrs. Helyar at East Coker, Capt. Power at Walford, continue to watch over their welfare personally, visit them, govern them ; but in most cases they delegate the duty to the clergyman. Here and there, as at Goodrich, the school owes its prosperity to the interest taken in it by some liberal and active lay manager, who is secretary or treasurer ; but these are the exceptional cases. In most instances the constitution of the school follows the constitution of the parish, and the "parson," as he is legally and conventionally the head of this, so is he practically and really the head of that. This is so universally the law that it is hardly worth while to accumulate facts in illustration of it. I speak, it is to be remembered, of *country parishes*.

Inspection of schools.

Government inspection, as is well known, cannot be refused where the managers, having accepted Government aid, have made their school liable to it. Diocesan inspection, which is general throughout my district, is frequently repudiated on a variety of grounds. The two deepest and broadest grounds, however, are (1) a difference of theological opinions between the clerical manager and the bishop or his inspector ; (2) a consciousness that the school is not fit to bear the light. The latter is an intelligible reason ; though to act upon it seems like a deliberate preference for a state of things of which one confesses oneself ashamed. The former exhibits a strange and unhappy amount of jealousy or suspicion, as though a neighbour, even if he *had* the power, in a short annual visit of two or three hours, to poison one's children's minds with some terrible unorthodoxy, would have bad taste or bad feeling enough to use it. I subjoin a few illustrations of the feelings that exist upon the general subject.

In a Dorsetshire parish I found the clergyman, who is sole manager and sole supporter of his school, disliked the interference of the Government, and disliked the theology of his neighbour, the rural dean, who, as the bishop's officer, would inspect his school. "Do you object to inspection, then, in itself?" "Oh no ; I think it is an excellent stimulus to a school ; and I have written to the Home and Colonial Society, in London, to ask them to send me down one of their inspectors ; but they have discontinued the practice." So, while admitting the advantages of inspection *per se*, my good friend, who discussed the

question very amiably with me, repudiated it in the only accessible forms in which it presented itself to him.

The following letters which I received myself, in reply to my announcement of an intended visit to schools, illustrate the feelings that animate some persons towards any one who, in any sense or shape, may be considered as a representative of the State. The first is very laconic, and I did not choose to interpret it as a refusal of admission. The writer was absent on the day that I visited his parish, and I procured the necessary information from the schoolmaster. The school is one of those that I have described as hardly prepared to bear too much light thrown upon its condition. "Dear sir,—The Sunday school is entirely supported by myself; and our schools are private schools." These "private schools," however, were endowed, and under trustees. Letter 2 :—"Sir,—I must decline even attempting to fill up the forms which you have sent me. I have a school here, strictly Church, never assisted by the Committee of Council, or any other public body, and under no control or inspection whatsoever but that of the minister of the parish. Number of children about 40. I cannot allow any return or report beyond this to be made of it. I return the papers, and write this wishing to save you the trouble of a useless visit." I, of course, paid my visit all the same; was personally received with much kindness by the manager, who helped me to fill up my table, though he continued to stand upon his principle so far, that, on one or two points quite unimportant he declined to give information; and he refused to grant me admittance to his school. Letter 3 :—"Sir,—You will be so good as attribute the returns made by me as owing to the wish that they should be made, privately conveyed to me, of the Lord Bishop of this diocese, to whom alone, in my opinion, the right of putting the questions you have undertaken to put seems to belong. I hope, at the same time, that this act of courtesy will not be taken as an admission of the propriety of the present mode of proceeding."

The gentleman who wrote this last letter is himself a diocesan inspector, and claiming to be admitted, as the Bishop's officer and as a matter of right, to inspect a large town school in his neighbourhood; he was unfortunate enough to clash with notions of independence entertained by the committee, who, as a consequence, resolved to decline diocesan inspection for the future. There is, as it seems to me, in so vital a matter affecting such large interests, and where co-operation and sympathy are of all others the things that we most need to excite, too much standing upon imaginary points of dignity and imaginary points of principle. Were I ever so well satisfied with the theoretical soundness of any principle, I should doubt whether I were justified in carrying it out practically, when I saw that its maintenance involved the sacrifice of some of the best interests of my school. I did not meet with a single person but allowed the advantage of some kind of inspection; but a few, a very few, I am happy to say, would admit none, unless it were of their own kind; and that was not always attainable.

Many of the diocesan inspectors take great interest in their work, and do it very efficiently. In Dorsetshire they are *ex officio* the rural deans; in Devon and Somerset they are appointed by the bishop; in Herefordshire, though bishop's officers, their reports are sent in to the Secretary of the Diocesan Education Board. In Worcestershire the system, I think, is the same. Diocesan inspection, as a system, covers the whole area of my district, though, as I have said, for one reason or another, there are several schools that do not come under its operation. It has always struck me as one of the saddest effects of our theological

differences, that they make themselves felt even in the matter of elementary education.

Diocesan and Government inspection appear to work together without any jar. If they take place at opposite six months in the year, they contribute powerfully to sustain the efficiency of the school. A word in season often drops from the inspector, which an intelligent teacher turns to after account; the children rapidly acquire readiness and self-possession in their answers, and the visits of an inspector of any sense are almost universally welcomed in schools of any merit. From what I have seen, to hear that a school was not under inspection of any kind, would raise in my mind a strong prepossessing anticipation of its *inefficiency*. The test of coming to the light holds good here, as well as in matters of higher concern. As a rule, the uninspected schools are the worst schools.

The question of the government of schools would assume more importance, if any legislative enactment provided for their maintenance by compulsory local rates. In large portions of an agricultural district such a measure would be fatal to their efficiency if the administration of the rate and the control of the school were left in the hands of the ratepayers. One may anticipate what would be the result, by seeing how large sums of money, administered by feoffees, as at Colyton or Stockland, are spent now. It is possible to spend a great deal of money on education without advancing its real interests one hair's breadth. And such, from what I have seen, I fear in too many places (*in most rural places*) would be the effect of a rate in aid. It would, of course, at once extinguish the voluntary system, which, it must be admitted, rests upon no better defined basis than feeling and a sense of duty, and consequently, is somewhat precarious and capricious in its operation. But, with all its imperfections, in a work of this kind, I confess that I would rather trust to it than to a system which would simply put its hand into men's pockets without ever touching their hearts. I presume that a central bureau might, to a certain extent, provide for the proper expenditure of money raised under such a system, standing much in the same relation to the local administrators that the Poor Law Board does to Boards of Guardians. But when one sees by the example of the workhouses at Ross, Bromyard, and Dore into what a state Boards of Guardians can allow their schools to fall in spite of Poor Law Boards and Government Inspectors, who appear only able to record dissatisfaction without compelling improvement, one has not much confidence in the effectiveness of such control. As a result of my observation, I am not at all inclined to throw up the voluntary system as inadequate. Even where it does its work ill, as, speaking generally, in the Union of Dore, I doubt whether a compulsory system would do the work better; and certainly, when the voluntary system is effective, the result is of a far higher kind morally and socially than could be produced by any other method. The labourers in this field must be willing, not reluctant ones.

REPORT

OF

THE REV. THOMAS HEDLEY, M.A.

REPORT of ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER *the Rev. THOMAS HEDLEY, M.A., Vicar of Masham, Yorkshire, on the STATE of POPULAR EDUCATION in SPECIMEN AGRICULTURAL DISTRICTS in the POOR LAW UNIONS of LINCOLN, GAINSBOROUGH, THORNE, DONCASTER, NEWARK, THETFORD, DOWNSHAM, THINGOE, BURY, MILDENHALL, and ELY, in the Counties of LINCOLN, YORK, NOTTINGHAM, SUFFOLK, NORFOLK, and CAMBRIDGE.*

MY LORD DUKE AND GENTLEMEN.

May 9, 1859.

In presenting my report, I beg to premise that the statements contained in it, even when expressed in the form of opinions, are entirely based upon the answers given to my inquiries in the course of my tour through the districts assigned to me by Her Majesty's Education Commissioners. Owing to the character of those districts, there are some points on which I have been able to gather very little information. On others I should have been glad to seek a confirmation of the statements made to me, by questions put to more numerous witnesses, but the time allowed me precluded my doing so. The persons to whom I have generally applied, and whose evidence and opinions I have chiefly relied upon, have been school teachers, school managers, farmers and employers of labour, and persons of property and intelligence taking an interest in education. In villages the only person who takes any interest in the school is, generally speaking, the clergyman.

I have visited every place in the districts assigned to me, with the exception of a few hamlets, in which I ascertained that there were no schools; and I have left circulars, either myself or by my clerk, at every school which I have heard of. The circulars for private schools were, in all cases, filled up by myself or my clerk; and the information given in them is, in most cases, complete and trustworthy. The ages of the younger children could not always be ascertained with exactness; but I have no doubt that they are stated with a very close approximation to the truth. In a few cases the children were not present, and no return of the ages could be obtained.

In my application to persons keeping schools of a better class I was generally successful; but in some instances all information was refused.

The most important schools connected with this inquiry are those which are supported by subscriptions or other extraneous aid for the benefit of the labouring classes. I am sorry to say that the information sought from the managers of these schools has been very incompletely given. Wherever such schools are not under Government inspection, a good deal of suspicion and dread of interference is usually awakened by an inquiry supposed

to emanate in any way from the Government. When I have had the opportunity of giving explanations in person, I have generally succeeded in removing this apprehension; but for want of such opportunity, I have in some cases failed to obtain any returns. In some instances the term "public school," printed on Circular M., has, I have reason to think, been an impediment to my receiving information respecting schools supported by individual patrons, and regarded by them as *strictly private*.

It is much to be regretted that Circular M. has not been filled up with more care. But it must be remarked that in some schools returns of a similar kind are asked for from several different quarters (*e. g.*, the Committee of Council, the National Society, Diocesan Boards), and can seldom be made without imposing upon the masters considerable trouble. It can hardly, therefore, be wondered at that many masters should have been unwilling to bestow much labour or time upon these papers.

The Sunday school papers would have been filled up in many cases more carefully if information had not already been given in reply to circulars issued through other hands.

Public schools. The number of public schools and their general condition will be found detailed in Appendix A.

The total number is 344, besides a few which were closed for a time at the period of my visit.

Private schools. The number of private schools which I have found is 501, of which 402 are schools for the labouring classes. By far the greatest number of these are dames' schools. For the numbers in different unions, I refer to Appendix A.

Sunday schools. With only one or two exceptions, the Sunday schools of my district are connected either with the Church or with some religious denomination. How far they serve to keep up the education given at an earlier period in the day school may be judged of by the ages of the children at Sunday schools. In Sunday schools 48 per cent. are 9 years old and upwards, whereas in week-day schools only 34 per cent. are of that age. In Sunday schools 11 per cent. are of the age of 13 and upwards; whereas in week-day schools only 4 per cent. are of that age. Sunday schools are confined to religious teaching, excepting that the younger children are often taught to read. They also, of course, keep up the power of reading in the elder children who have left the week-day school. In Sunday schools in villages, connected with dissenters, the teachers are often extremely deficient in ability to write and spell. (See Appendix B.)

Number of children at school.

I have made an estimate of the number of children whose names were on the books of a school at the time of my visit to the school. If the papers which I issued had all been filled up, the number could have been stated exactly. But in some instances no returns have been made. In part of these cases I ascertained the numbers when I visited the school, but in others I have been obliged to supply the numbers from conjecture. I have, however, in all cases some ground for my estimate, and I am sure that I am making the total much more correct than if I were to take no account of the schools from which returns have not been obtained.

The numbers I find to be as follows:—

24,979 in public schools.
 9,240 in private schools.
 2,854 in schools of a higher class.

The total is 37,073

The estimated number of children between the ages of 3 and 15 in the unions which I have visited, according to the statement supplied to me, is 77,973.

The number of children at school, in my calculation, includes some under 3 and some above 15. Making allowance for this (see Appendix C.), I estimate the number of children in the districts assigned to me, between the ages of 3 and 15, whose names I found upon some school books, as 35,953. This is rather less than half the whole number of children between those ages.

The next point on which I have endeavoured to arrive at a conclusion is the average period of attendance at school, by which I mean the average interval between first going to school and finally leaving it. Average stay
at school.

In answer to my questions on this point, I have only received very vague replies, as might be expected, for the following reasons:—(1.) It is not a point on which any record is kept in most registers. (2.) The master's observation does not generally extend over a sufficient range of time. (3.) The children in many cases do not spend all their school time in the same school.

However, the general tenor of the replies to my questions is to this effect, that children usually commence school about 5 years of age, they begin to leave school about 9, and few are found there above 13. The conclusion from these numbers would be that the school period averages about 6 years.

The statistical returns tend to show that this is not very wide of the truth.

I have made two calculations, explained in the Appendix D.

The first of these, based upon a comparison of the estimated numbers of children existing and of children at school, gives for the average period of school life, 5·53 years. I have mentioned reasons for thinking this too low.

The second calculation, based upon the greatest number of children at school of any one age, gives, for boys, 7·26 years, and for girls, 8·24 years.

These numbers are probably correct for three-fourths of the whole number of children; but the average for the whole (taking into account the other one-fourth, comprising the most irregular) must be lower.

I do not think we shall be far from the truth if we take the mean between the limits which I have assigned, and state the average period of school life to be, for boys, 6·38 years, and for girls, 6·88 years, remembering that in the case of the far greater number of children the average period is higher.

These periods, however, do not at all represent the actual time spent at school. In many schools the attendance in summer is Actual time
spent at school.

only *half* what it is in winter. The schools which I visited in October and November were considerably thinner than they would have been in January and February. I was repeatedly told that children above the age of eight are away from school for entire intervals varying from four to eight months in the year, and that those above 10 or 11 are frequently only to be found in the school for a few weeks in winter. The general complaint is that there is hardly such a thing as *progress* in the education of children above eight years of age. Teachers can usually do no more than bring the elder children up again each winter to the point which they had reached before.

These statements are confirmed by reference to the Tables of statistics.

By the Tables in Appendix D. it appears that boys and girls *begin to leave school finally* at the age of 9. The same causes which take them away from school at that age will, of course, make their attendance irregular at a still earlier time.

Appendix F. contains an abstract of Table VIII. of the returns from public schools, based upon returns from 125 schools. From that abstract it appears that (1) nearly 40 per cent., attend school less than half the year; and (2) about 60 per cent. attend less than three quarters of the year.

By Table in Appendix E. it appears that nearly 40 per cent. of the scholars are 9 years old and upwards, and 53 per cent. are 8 years old and upwards.

And these are the scholars who, according to the general testimony of teachers, are absent from four to eight months of the year. The statements of the teachers quite tally with the above inferences drawn from the statistics.

Children kept
from school.

I have had no means of ascertaining with any degree of accuracy, what number of children are left altogether without education; but from the answers which have been given to my inquiries in particular cases, I should suppose it to be between 5 and 10 per cent. These are almost always the children of dissipated parents, who are totally indifferent to the welfare of their families, and cannot be said to have a *reason* for keeping their children from school. In villages these cases are much fewer than in towns.

I have met with very few instances indeed where children are supposed to be kept away from school through the inability of their parents to pay for them. The table of school fees is often so arranged that when there are already one or two members of a family in the school, others are admitted at a lower charge, or even without payment at all. In many places, also, there are persons who pay the school fees for a few of the poorest families.

Even persons who are receiving out-door relief seem to be able to send their children to school. In one union inquiry had just been made, at the time of my visit, into this point by the board of guardians, and the result of it was that it was deemed unnecessary to interfere by assisting persons who were receiving out-door relief, towards the education of their children. (See Appendix G.)

The poor do not neglect the education of their children under the impression that the teaching supplied is not adapted to their

wants. They do not, indeed, commonly set any value upon anything beyond reading, writing, cyphering, and sewing. If there is a choice, they sometimes prefer a school in which no time is devoted to geography, grammar, or music. They sometimes send their children to an inferior private school to oblige a neighbour, or out of kind feeling towards a widow, or because it is near at hand. But the instruction given in public schools is, on the whole, such as they are satisfied with.

I have not heard of a single instance in which the religious teaching in a school formed the ground for withdrawing or withholding children from the school.

The chief causes of irregularity in the attendance of children at school are the following:—

1. The indifference of the parents.

This is seen in the fact that children are often away from school when they are not at work. Parents both allow their children to stay at home and keep them at home for trivial reasons, requiring no self-denial on their part to encounter. I believe, however, that this indifference is on the decrease. In many places teachers state that there is considerable anxiety shown by parents to secure the education of their children; sometimes, because they themselves are uneducated, and have experienced the want; more frequently, because they have received education themselves, and have found its value.

2. The incompetence or unpopularity of the teacher.

The influence of this upon the attendance of the children is seen by the effect produced by a change of masters. Where an incompetent or unpopular master is succeeded by one of an opposite character, the attendance is sure to improve in a marked manner.

3. But the great reason of the frequent and long periods of absence from school is to be found in the fact that children are so soon able to earn wages of considerable amount.*

The following facts will show how strong an inducement there is for parents to send their children to work instead of keeping them at school.

In the district embracing the Unions of Thorne, Doncaster, Gainsborough, Lincoln, and Newark, the wages of ordinary farm labourers are 12s. a week in winter and 14s. or 15s. in summer. Children begin to have a money value as soon as they can shout loud enough to scare a crow, or can endure exposure to the weather in watching cows in the lane. At 8 years of age they earn 6d. a day, *or more*; at 11 or 12 they earn 1s. a day.

In the district of Ely, Bury, Mildenhall, Downham Market,

* Extracts from the Report of the Swaffham District Branch of the National School Society, 1858:—"If that Report should appear not altogether satisfactory as regards the progress of improvement in the schools, we cannot but assign the chief cause of it to the irregularity of the attendance of the scholars, occasioned by that growing evil, the increase of juvenile, in many cases of almost infantine labour in field work, a practice not permitted to exist in some other branches of industrial employment."

"The demand for children's labour is so excessive, that the prospect of gain far outweighs in parents' minds the advantages of education: and in this there seems to be no difference between a good and a bad school."

and Thetford, the wages of men are 8s. or 9s. a week in winter, and 10s. or 11s. in summer. The wages of children are proportionately less, being from 3d. to 8d. a day.

There is not constant employment for children all the year round, but the periods are small during which they cannot be engaged upon one thing or another. There is a great deal of work which they can do as well or better than grown persons. They not only *can* earn wages, but *they are in great request*; they are as necessary a part of the farmers' staff, for a great part of the year, as the adult labourer; they are *cheaper* than other labour; so that I have even heard of a labourer being unable to get work, whilst his children were earning wages. The usual employments assigned to them are bean dropping, tenting cows in the lanes, bird keeping, turnip thinning, stone picking, weeding, driving the horses at plough, turnip cutting for sheep.

Many localities supply special occupation for children, having a very marked effect upon the schools at the seasons when it occurs.

Thus on the banks of the Trent below Gainsborough potatoes are largely grown, and in the autumn the children are all employed following the men who dig the potatoes, and gathering them up.

In the neighbourhood of Tickhill peas are grown for the Sheffield market, and at the time for gathering them the bellman is sent round to call the women and children into the fields.

At Mexborough children are largely employed in the potteries and glass works.

At Conisborough they are engaged in the brick and pipe yards; and I was informed that boys of seven or eight could earn 1s. a day.

In the neighbourhood of Newark willow peeling employs many young hands in the spring.

At Brandon there is work for children in "fur cutting," as it is termed—preparing rabbit skins for use.

In the neighbourhood of the same place, and wherever game is largely preserved, boys are wanted in the shooting season to brush the covers.

About Ely, children, both boys and girls, assist their fathers in "claying." Whilst the man throws up clay from the bottom of a deep trench, to be mixed with the light black earth, the child with a spade moves it out of the way.

About Depden the children help the labourer in draining, their duty being to keep the man's spade wet.

To the south of Bury a great deal of slop work is done in the villages for exportation. The clothes are cut out in a factory, and made up in the cottages by women and young girls. A woman can make about three coats in a week, and gets 10d. each for them; the girls less in proportion.

In various places children are employed in gangs to pick stones off the land, or gather twitch or weeds. They are usually engaged, not by the farmer, but by a man who acts as overseer of the gang and takes them about with him. He is often a person either unfit for work or of idle habits. His gains are said to be considerable. This system is, according to general testimony, most demoralizing. I have heard it constantly spoken of in the strongest possible

terms of condemnation. The gangs frequently contain both boys and girls, and the language used is said to be shocking; nor is it of a better character where the gang contains only women and girls. The leader, instead of being a check, is often the promoter of mischievous talk.

It can hardly be a matter of surprise that, when three children in a family, above eight years old, can double the weekly income of the house, parents should withdraw the children from school; particularly when it is remembered that they have few examples before them of persons whose worldly interests have been promoted by education; that the farmer on hiring a lad never asks whether he can read and write, and never goes to the school for his character; that the foreman or the shepherd, who ought to read, write, and cypher, often cannot, and get on very well if they have a wife or child who can; and that, for all parents can see, the children can and do learn what they require in the periods when no work is to be had.

But if from particular circumstances parents do acquire a higher appreciation of the benefits conferred on children by longer or more regular attendance at school, and are willing to make the necessary sacrifice, they have in most cases a further difficulty which it is scarcely possible for them to surmount. The farmer requires the labour of the children. In several cases I have been told that employers insist on the children of their labourers working for them. This is more particularly the case in Cambridgeshire, Suffolk, and Norfolk. In the north of Lincolnshire the labourers are more independent; but even there the master's wish is generally sufficient to quench the (probably not very strong) inclination to forego the child's wages and keep him at school.

Whilst making these statements respecting the employers of labour, I ought to add that in many (perhaps most) cases the population is not more than sufficient to do the work, and frequently the whole number of available hands is required at once. Farmers remarking upon this have said to me, "at certain seasons we want the children, and *must have them.*"

I will now mention some of the means which have been tried to induce children to remain longer at school, and attend more regularly.

No general system for such a purpose has been adopted or attempted in the districts which I have visited. The efforts made are isolated and experimental, but not the less interesting on that account.

Annual rewards of an honorary character, such as books, are **Prizes**, seldom given; this may be owing to the want of funds; but where such prizes are not given, I have not heard any wish expressed by teachers that they could be. I take this to be an indication that they do not attach much value to them.

In a few schools clothing is given as a reward for regular attendance; it is said to have some effect.

In two or three cases an attempt has been made to offer some **Money prizes**, compensation for the loss of wages to which parents must submit who send their children constantly to school, by money prizes.

In one school a lady offered a shilling a week to parents who would keep their girls at school regularly: only two families accepted the offer.

In another, a part of the capitation grant has been employed in giving annual prizes, varying from 6*d.* to 10*s.* The clergyman says in reply to my inquiries, "I believe that money prizes help to promote regularity of attendance in those children who are under the age for work; but I am not so sure that they keep those at school who can *earn* anything."

In a third school the patron gives prizes to the following extent:—To the first class, three prizes of 3*l.*, 1*l.* 10*s.*, and 1*l.* respectively; to the second class, two prizes of 1*l.* and 10*s.*; to the third, two prizes of 12*s.* and 8*s.* respectively. They are given for proficiency and attendance amounting to 390 days in 2 years. The patron informs me that the attendance at the school has improved since the institution of these prizes.

Other inducements to regular attendance are applied with success in particular cases.

In the school to which I alluded just now, where the patroness offered a shilling a week to the parents who would keep their girls at school, the same lady has found a more effectual stimulus to prolonged attendance in offering to procure desirable situations for the girls as servants.

In another school the manager pays the girls for the work they do, and thinks that they are thus induced to stay longer than they would do.

In a school remarkable among village schools for the attendance of the children, the clergyman makes a practice of going round once a year and taking down the names of all children whom the parents will undertake to send regularly to school; on condition of their doing this he promises to pay half the school fee, and sometimes more than half according to circumstances. The parents do not in reality pay less than usual, for the school fee is very high, being 4*d.* or 8*d.* a week, according to the condition of the families.

In some schools where the attendance is better than usual, it may be traced to the practice adopted by the master of making personal inquiry at the houses of the parents when the children are absent. This does not affect the case of children who are absent on account of *bonâ fide* work.

A few cases have come under my notice which have a particular interest as bearing upon the question whether parents can forego the wages which their children might earn.

At Ingham, near Bury, the rule is that the children shall not go out to work unless they stay out the whole quarter. Very few do this; there is very little interruption to the school.

At Livermere the proprietor of the parish, who chiefly supports the school, makes the regular attendance of the children an indispensable condition of their continuance at the school.

I would not lay much stress upon these instances, because the parishes are in the hands of large and liberal proprietors, and the labourers have advantages in the shape of low rents, &c.

In some schools a system of strictness has been adopted with good effect. Either the number is limited and children are obliged to wait for a time before they can obtain admission, or else the name is removed if the child is absent a certain number of days without leave, and readmission is made a matter of difficulty. The schools in which such rules are acted upon appear to be popular, and admission to them is valued as a privilege. It may be that their popularity enables them to insist upon regular attendance, but I believe that a system which assumes that admission to school is a privilege will in the end be much more successful than coaxing or bribing parents to send their children.

In the schools for the poor prizes are not offered, as in other schools, to stimulate competition between the scholars; they are almost wholly applied to promote more constant attendance. Now the *great* cause of irregular attendance is the temptation of wages. It is plain, therefore, that the only prizes which will be effectual must either offer an immediate or an ultimate equivalent for wages foregone. To offer an immediate equivalent is out of the question. A prize which offers an ultimate equivalent for the present loss of wages must be in the shape of a testimonial which gives a youth higher value in the eyes of employers. Such a system of prizes has at present no place in the schools of agricultural districts. Farmers do not hire boys for such qualities as a school testimonial would speak of. A boy is not worth higher wages who has been regular at school and learnt to read, write, and cypher well.

I come next to the question whether schools could be made more serviceable to the labouring classes or more attractive by the introduction of industrial training.

The only schools in which I have found any industrial training for boys are the workhouse schools. There the system is decidedly successful in some of its results. The boys, though spending only half the day in school, make excellent progress. Indeed, of all the schools which I examined, the workhouse schools seemed to me to be much the best. The workhouse masters, who could compare the schools since the introduction of industrial work with the same schools previous to it, spoke in strong terms of the great improvement, and in comparing those workhouse schools in which it exists with one or two in which it does not, I could perceive a striking difference of tone. With industrial training the boys are more healthy, more cheerful, and make more progress in half a day's study than other boys in the whole day.

But I cannot see reason to think that any of the same success would attend the introduction of industrial training into ordinary schools.

Its success in workhouse schools amounts to this,—that the boys are far better with it in health, in attainments, and in fitness for after occupation than they would be without it. But if we compare workhouse with other schools, and allow that the boys in the former are superior to those in the latter in reading, writing, &c., I think the difference can be *wholly* accounted for by the fact that the workhouse boys are perfectly regular in attendance, are under complete control both in and out of school hours, and owing

to their small number are constantly taught by the master himself. If boys in ordinary schools, under trained masters, attended school *regularly* for three hours a day, I do not doubt that the standard of attainments would approach that in workhouse schools.

One beneficial effect of industrial training in workhouse schools is found in the improved health and spirits of the boys. It is obvious that this recommendation disappears in the case of boys who are at full liberty to work and play.

Again, though industrial training makes the workhouse boy fitter for trade or labour than he would be without it, he cannot compete with the labourer's child brought up at home. The workhouse boy at the best is not sought after by the farmer. He has learnt to handle a spade, but he has never handled harness, he knows nothing of the farmyard, and he is not inured to weather. No system of industrial training can give boys that handiness which they acquire in real work. Few boys from the workhouse obtain places as farm labourers; nearly all are apprenticed to a trade.

With regard to girls, a comparison between workhouse and other schools seems to be in favour of industrial training. In some workhouse schools the elder girls are taught washing, ironing, and such other housework as there is opportunity to instruct them in. This training really fits them for service, and consequently the girls in such workhouses are in great request as domestic servants.

How far this system could be adopted in other schools would depend upon the possibility of supplying the requisite work. Of its success, if it could be introduced, I do not think there can be much doubt. I have mentioned above a case in point, in which the clergyman's daughter takes two or three of the elder school girls into the house and prepares them for service. She finds that parents are anxious to obtain this training for their girls, and will, in the hope of it, keep them longer at school. On the other hand, employers are equally anxious to take these girls as servants.

The same thing has been tried with success at Gate Burton. Mrs. Hutton has a school in her own grounds, the elder girls are taught washing, ironing, cooking, cleaning, &c. The school has become very popular with parents, and the girls readily obtain good places.

Half-time.

The half-time system offers in theory a combination of the best industrial training with prolonged attendance at school. It has not been tried in any part that I have visited. But I have endeavoured to gather opinions upon the question from school managers, schoolmasters, and farmers. Many reasons are urged against the practicability of the system. Most of them have often been stated before, but as I received them fresh from practical men I will state them here.

Alternate half-day system is pronounced impossible because boys have often a long distance to go to their work, and would have to clean themselves after coming home from work. Farmers also set a boy his work *for the day*, and extra trouble would be involved if two sets of boys had to receive orders.

I must, however, mention an instance which shows that in some kind of work this plan is not altogether beyond the possibility of application. A farmer employing a boy to keep the birds off the corn was reminded of the injury done to the boy on Sunday by keeping him all day from home. The farmer, having the welfare of his labourers at heart, at once employed two boys for the Sunday, and arranged that the one who took the morning turn should go home in time for dinner, and the one who had the afternoon should also dine at home before leaving. If farmers were all equally thoughtful for the good of their labourers, the same thing might no doubt often be done on week days.

Alternate day or alternate week system is not so strongly objected to in the case of younger boys. But if any such system were adopted, it must be capable of being relaxed occasionally; at times all the boys and girls in a village are wanted; there are not enough to do the work by relays. Farmers would object to the plan in the case of boys of 10 or 12, the most important case, because at that age some boys are handier than others for particular work; and if one boy is engaged who can drive horses well, a farmer would not let his place be taken by an inferior driver. Also, where there is much piece-work, the father takes his own boy to assist him, and would not of course be willing to be helped by another.

In agricultural work there is not the same uniformity and regularity as in factory work. The demand for labour depends upon the seasons, and upon the weather. And although I think that the children of agricultural labourers might very well be obliged to spend half the year in school, without producing any inconvenience to the employer; yet I think that if a system of half-time were introduced, it could not be a rigid system of alternate equal intervals; but must be adapted to the irregular pressure of demand. And this would to a great degree destroy the value of a half-time system. It is the regular and constant attendance at school that is more important than the actual length of time spent there. It may be added that under any half-time system, if the school is to be efficient, the children must all be at school *at the same time*. If some come at one time and some at another, much of the teacher's work is thrown away; the classes cannot be kept together. This objection to half-time system was mentioned to me by a teacher who had conducted a school in which were many "half-timers" under the Factory Act.

I have asked many persons interested in the education of the poor whether they would like to see any system of half-time enforced by legislative enactment, but I have found very little feeling in favour of such a thing. Persons who have thought much on the subject, and have tried to struggle against the difficulties which surround it, do not seem to have looked with any hope towards legislative interference. If there is one case in which the present evils would, I believe, be regarded as inviting such interference, it is the employment of *girls* in field work. The effect of it is that at an early age they become corrupted in mind and rough in manner. When girls have been employed in

field work they are found unwilling to settle to domestic service. The evils arising from the practice of so employing them are almost everywhere strongly spoken of and loudly deplored.

Preference of
poor for systems
of management.

With regard to the feelings of the poor in reference to particular systems of management, I have not found any reason to think that they have any preference.

Governing
body.

In the rural districts the manager of the school is, almost without exception, the clergyman of the parish. Sometimes at his desire other persons are named as a committee of management. But he is, in almost all cases, the only person who takes any interest in the school. He is usually one of the chief—or the chief—contributor to its support. He is the responsible person when the school is in debt. He is the visitor, and frequently an occasional teacher of the school. Indeed, there are instances of his acting as teacher for weeks together, for the sake of keeping the school together until a new master arrives. In other instances he has a daily class of children at his own house.

Whatever efficiency and life there is in our rural schools, I should attribute it almost wholly to the influence and exertions of the parochial clergy.

In some cases the chief proprietor of the parish is the supporter and manager of the school.

System of in-
spection.
I. Government.

In all schools receiving annual grants from the Committee of Council, the inspection is regular and careful. Such schools are usually superior to others. This superiority is due to many causes. The fact that the school receives Government aid, implies that it is fairly supplied with funds, that it is taught by a superior master or mistress, and is well organized and supplied with apparatus.

Of the effect of inspection a judgment can be formed only by the opinions of the teachers. They approve of inspection; they feel that it stimulates themselves and the scholars; they look for the inspector's report with anxiety.

Other schools are liable to inspection, either because the managers have received a building grant or because they have invited inspection. Where inspection is invited, no further proof is required of the opinion of the managers.

Where the school is rendered liable to inspection by having received a building grant, there is great difference in the feelings with which inspection is regarded. But wherever any aversion to it is expressed, such reasons have been alleged as have convinced me that inspection, if properly conducted, would be welcomed and highly valued as beneficial to the schools. But if the inspector comes without any notice of his intention, if for two or three years he omits to come at all, if he examines in a hasty and superficial manner, if he makes no allowance for the difficulties under which the school or teacher have laboured, and expresses his judgment harshly, it is no wonder if the teacher is discouraged, and the managers annoyed, and both cease to look for help in the system of inspection, and are set against it. Whenever an opinion has been expressed to me unfavourable to inspection, farther

inquiry has led me to perceive that it was only because the examination was improperly conducted.

In many cases *managers* object to Government inspection, because they have a vague fear that inspection will lead to interference. But of the value of inspection, in tending to increase the efficiency of the school, schoolmasters are the best judges, and I think they would always court it if it were conducted as it should be.

Diocesan inspection is also certainly good in its effect, though not altogether in the same way as the Government inspection. Diocesan inspection.

The visit of the diocesan inspector is not, for obvious reasons, looked forward to with so much anxiety as that of the Government inspector. He is not generally so well practised in examining; but still a good deal of value is attached to his report.

Indirectly good is produced by the interest which is awakened by a comparison of neighbouring schools; by hints carried from one to another; and by the knowledge gleaned by the inspectors, to be applied in their own parish schools.

When a school is under both Government and diocesan inspection, I doubt whether the latter is of any service to the school, though I must add that one or two diocesan inspectors have expressed an opposite opinion to me. My own judgment is formed upon the remarks of the teachers.

The number of schools in my district under Government inspection is small; the number of those under diocesan inspection not much larger; and the number of those under both very small.

I have only twice had an opportunity of hearing expressed the objection which some bodies entertain against receiving Government aid. The Independents at Gainsborough and Lincoln have set schools on foot, but declining Government aid; in the former place the school has been given up.

With regard to Government interference with education, the feeling, as far as I have been able to test it, is almost unanimous against such interference. I do not speak of the present system as being regarded by those who are acquainted with it as interference, but I believe there is some disinclination to ask for either aid or inspection lest interference should follow.

I have very little evidence to offer upon the inquiry whether voluntary contributions are checked or more largely drawn out by the prospect of obtaining Government aid. I do not think that an increase in the amount raised by voluntary contributions for school purposes during the last 15 years would warrant the conclusion that the exciting cause was the Government system of grants; but what evidence I have is decidedly in favour of the good effect produced by that system. Where good schools have been erected, and I have asked whether it was probable that they could have been erected without Government aid, the answer has always been that there would have been no likelihood of such a thing; and where new schools are contemplated, the Government grant is often spoken of as the encouragement to make an attempt which would otherwise be hopeless.

Great complaints are made by the managers of country schools,

that Government aid is placed so far out of their reach, in particular, that the conditions under which the capitation grant is made are such as to exclude them from any share in it. After listening to many complaints upon this subject, I must say that I have not found much allowance made for the difficulties which surround the question, and I have scarcely heard any suggestion for meeting them. But considering how greatly the schools in small villages languish for want of funds, and how great help such schools would derive from an additional 5*l.* or 10*l.* a year; it is very desirable that the conditions for the capitation grant should be such as they might by some exertion comply with. A trained and certificated teacher they generally *cannot* obtain; but if the grant depended upon the state of the school, with proper allowance for the great difficulties under which the schools of small agricultural parishes labour, many schools would, I think, make out a good claim to the grant. At present there is no doubt that the schools which need the help most, and which are (if their difficulties be taken into account) as deserving as any, are the least able to obtain it. The managers of rural schools say, and I think with reason, that they are not *fairly* treated as candidates for the grant. If persons who struggle most perseveringly to promote the education of the poor in the face of the utmost discouragement have any title to the help which the capitation grant would give their schools, the managers of village schools may certainly ask for some more favourable conditions to be attached to that grant.

Under the head of finance, the Commissioners desire information on the subject of school fees. On no point have my inquiries been more clearly answered than upon this. The higher the school fee, the better is the attendance and the greater the value set upon the education; of course there is a limit, depending for its amount on local circumstances.

I have met with many instances in which the school fee has been raised, uniformly with the same effect,—more regular attendance without diminution of numbers. In free schools I have generally found the attendance very irregular, or else it has proved necessary to make stringent rules to enforce attendance. In schools where some are free, or paid for by benevolent friends, these scholars are often remarked as less constant in attendance than the others.

In towns, when the fee has been raised, it has sometimes rather altered the class from which the scholars have been drawn, and excluded some of the lowest. But there is generally a school in which the fee does not exceed 2*d.* a week, and managers and teachers have never admitted that the increase of the fee has had the effect of depriving any children of education.

It is not uncommon for parents to prefer a school in which the fee is higher, estimating the education given, apparently, by the price charged.

But although the fee has been raised in so many instances, it is still small. By returns from 204 schools it appears that out of 14,861 children, 13,657 pay less than 4*d.* a week. Of these there are 11,376 paying less than 3*d.*; and of these, again, more than half (6,206) pay less than 2*d.* a week. These payments, moreover,

are only made, with a few exceptions, during those weeks that the child is at school, whilst the expenditure must be adapted to the largest number of scholars that are to be taught at any one time. Schools are, therefore, very often dependent for their efficiency upon annual subscriptions. And here, unfortunately, the supply is very far from being equal to the want. "What are your chief difficulties?" I have repeatedly asked of school managers. The answer is always the same:—"First, want of money; second, "irregular attendance of children." Farmers seldom feel any interest in the school, and seldom, therefore, subscribe to it. Landowners are often non-resident, and if they subscribe, do it to a very insufficient amount. Where landowners are resident and study the welfare of their tenants and labourers, they usually take an interest in the school and contribute liberally, if they do not wholly support it. But these cases are not frequent.

Schools are not often reported as being in debt; but the reason of this is that a real debt upon the school would very soon close it. In two or three cases I have found schools in debt to the clergyman. It is a debt so long as he sees any hope of raising subscriptions to liquidate it; otherwise he ceases to speak of it. Many schools would be in debt if one of the managers—generally the clergyman—did not consider his subscription to be whatever is wanted to make ends meet. It would be a mistake to suppose that because schools are not in debt the necessary funds are raised without difficulty.

In some cases I have been able to ascertain in what proportion the burden of the school is borne by landowners, occupiers, and clergy, and I have given a list in Appendix H. There are some cases in which clergymen will not ask for subscriptions, because they are unwilling to admit the control of such subscribers in the management of the school. There are some, again, who would rather pay a larger sum themselves than undertake the unpleasant task of soliciting subscriptions from persons who are not likely to give freely. But in most cases where the clergyman contributes so largely, it is because he has no one who will or can help him, and he must either make the sacrifice which it requires or see the school lose all its efficiency.

Schools which are under Government inspection and receive Government aid are, generally speaking, the best. They are usually found in the *larger* villages or towns. If in towns, they have the great advantage of more constant attendance. They are better supplied with funds, and have the services of a trained master or mistress. They are also generally taught with the aid of pupil-teachers. But, with all these advantages, I do not think that reading and writing are better taught in these schools than in many others. The difference appears rather in the wider range of subjects introduced, *e. g.*, geography, history, drawing, music, and also in the better order, discipline, and system.

Schools under inspection are generally better than those which are not inspected, but they are not better merely *because* they are

Comparison of schools.

Inspected schools.

inspected. If inspection is invited, it shows that there is some one who takes active interest in the school; and it is chiefly to that interest that the school is indebted for any superiority which it possesses.

Charity schools. Charity schools may be divided into different classes:—

1. Schools to which a sufficient endowment has been attached to give a master ample support—an endowment, that is, of 70*l.* or 80*l.* a year. I have found some such schools in a very good condition; one or two I have met with that are excessively bad. I think the difference may be traced altogether to the nature of the trust. If the trustees are few in number and independent in position, a well qualified master is elected, and the school is found in good order. If, on the contrary, the election is in the hands of the ratepayers, or any such body, the appointment, most likely, renders the charity worse than useless, and prevents, instead of promoting, the existence of a good school.

2. There are parishes which possess property to a considerable amount applicable to any purposes for the benefit of the place. In some such parishes excellent free schools are supported out of these funds. Their excellence I attribute to the fact that they are under the control of a small and respectable body of trustees. These cases are comparatively very few.

3. There is a far larger number of schools which are in part supported by endowments varying from 5*l.* to 30*l.* a year. In some a certain number of scholars are admitted free: in others the endowment is paid without any such condition. These small endowments are of great service, particularly when they can be thrown into the school funds without embarrassing the managers with any restrictions in the appointment of the master, or when they are so small as not to make the disposal of them a matter of patronage worth claiming by ratepayers or others. They are, I think, far more important than larger endowments, and much less liable to abuse. Schools perfectly free are not necessary: part of the funds can always be raised, and with advantage to all parties, by school fees. But the efficiency of many a school is greatly increased by the existence of an endowment of small amount. An endowment of 80*l.* or 100*l.* a year supports one free school; but the same sum divided renders equally efficient four or five schools.

Private schools.

There are very few schools, of a class similar to the national school, kept by persons on their own account. Such schools cannot remunerate a teacher unless the payment is at least 4*d.* or 6*d.* a week, and they cannot compete with schools which are supported in part by private subscriptions. They generally exist only where a national school has not been set on foot. In two or three instances the master of the national school, having quarreled with the managers, has withdrawn and opened a private school in the place. But I do not think they will find it worth while to continue the opposition long. The teaching in private schools is often superior in the subjects of writing and cyphering, but in point of accommodation, discipline, and moral tone these schools are very inferior.

Most private schools for the poor are kept by women. Some are in the hands of young women, who probably teach and manage young children well enough. But the greatest number by far are dames' schools. The mistresses are almost always wanting in qualifications for the office; often, indeed, they cannot write; they very seldom profess to teach writing or cyphering. The reading in dames' schools is often tolerably good. Whilst they are preparatory to national schools, they do some good in the service of education. Regarded in that light, there is only one great objection that has occurred to me, and that is the unhealthiness of the rooms in which they are crowded together. A mistress of a large infants' school remarked to me that children on first coming from dames' schools contrasted strongly in point of healthiness of look with those who had been some time in the larger school. Good ventilation, cleanliness, order, and discipline are points on which private schools never bear comparison with public ones, and they are not the least important elements in education.

Evening schools have become very general in the districts which I have visited. In the southern district (Ely, Bury, &c.) they are in the proportion of about one to every two villages; in the northern district (Gainsborough, Lincoln, &c.) they are not quite so numerous. They seem to have arisen naturally out of the necessities of the case, and as the best practical way of compensating for the broken attendance at school during an earlier age. They are resorted to by persons of all ages, but chiefly by boys and young men from 14 to 20 years of age. In a very few cases they are *mixed* schools, and in some of these instances precautions are taken to prevent the mischief likely to result. Nothing is desired beyond reading, writing, and cyphering. To quote an expression of an experienced patron of evening schools, "they are *invaluable*." Young men here recover or add to the power which they had imperfectly acquired at school. But this is not the only or the greatest recommendation of such schools. They provide occupation for the winter evenings, and keep many young men out of harm's way, and bring the labourers into contact with more educated persons, often with the happiest results.

One young man stated that the pence which he had spent on the evening school had saved him pounds.

A girls' evening school at Thetford is taught in part by a few ladies; the effect has been that a most beneficial influence has been gained over a number of young women who were previously placed by their occupation (work in a mill) in considerable danger.

Evening schools, when superintended by the clergyman or some person of education and influence, are described as productive of the best effects. A room full of lads in such a school presents a very different appearance from any day school, in the silence, attention, and earnestness with which they go through their work. The moral good that is produced, though not so obvious to a casual visitor, is no less certain, and gives to evening schools their greatest value.

One chief obstacle to their more general adoption is the difficulty of finding a qualified teacher. There is often no one to undertake the office but the master of the day school, who has already had enough to do in the way of teaching. Voluntary teachers, where they are to be had, and possess any aptitude for giving instruction, exert a better influence. But it is very seldom indeed that such teachers can be found.

Ragged schools. Schools, called ragged, have been recently set on foot at Doncaster and Newark. At Doncaster a few persons have raised subscriptions, hired a room, and engaged a master, and have gathered a good number of children off the streets. At the time of my visit, when the school had only been open a few weeks, the number was 40 or 50. The children who most needed it were supplied with clothing.

The persons interested in the school make it their business to look for children and induce them to come to school. One or two of them expressed the opinion that there are 200 or 300 children in Doncaster who might be gathered into the school.

There is no doubt that the exertions of these persons bring many children to school who would not come there of their own accord, and also that in supplying clothes to the ragged they remove one obstacle which would have excluded the children from education. But when the children are thus sought after and brought to school, there is no reason why they should not attend with regularity; there is nothing, in fact, to make a separate school and master necessary. The same means which bring the children to a ragged school, would, if applied, bring them to any of the schools already existing. And there is at present room enough in them. I do not, therefore, perceive that circumstances require a special school for the lowest class of children in a town of the size of Doncaster. And I doubt whether the exertions and funds for carrying on such a school will be permanent.

In Newark three schools have been at work about a year, which are called ragged schools. They are, however, held in an evening, only once a week; they are open to persons of all ages, and to children who are at the same time attending a day school. They are therefore only in part doing the work of ragged schools.

All these schools are doubtless doing good, and giving a little education to some who would otherwise go without any. But in parishes where every family has a settled home of some sort, and where all the children may be found and identified, there does not appear any reason why the efforts of benevolent persons might not as easily bring the children of the lowest class into the schools already established as create new schools on purpose for them. District visitors would have no difficulty in becoming acquainted with the children and watching them; and the funds now collected would serve to clothe the ragged and pay for their schooling. In provincial towns there does not seem to be any necessity at all parallel to that which suggested ragged schools in London and other large towns.

In schools which receive annual aid from Government, the Schoolmasters, masters are a body of men of superior intelligence and attainments; they are almost always spoken of by the managers in high terms. In fact such schools can offer stipends and emoluments which secure the services of the best teachers. I have not heard any complaints that certificated teachers devote too much time to the instruction of pupil-teachers. But the impression which I have received from my visits to schools under certificated masters is, that the elementary branches of instruction are *not* sufficiently attended to; the mechanical part of the work is not well done; the writing of the children can seldom be called good; the reading still more seldom. The writing lesson is too often conducted as if the children needed only practice, and not instruction. I believe that the system of parallel desks, which makes it inconvenient for the teacher to get behind the children whilst they are writing, is unfavourable to writing. In large schools, too, the master is sometimes induced to take advantage of the writing lesson going on in the upper class to turn his attention to another class, which would otherwise escape his personal superintendence.

In reading, the utmost that appears to be aimed at is, that children should be able to read without hesitating and stumbling, that is, should be able to read with facility *to themselves*. They are scarcely ever taught to read with expression, so as to convey the meaning of what they read clearly and agreeably to others. I do not think that good reading can be expected where the reading lesson is habitually given in the midst of the noise of the school; and I have rarely found that the class-room, where there is one, is used for this lesson. Distinct articulation, again, seems never to be taught; the substitute that is insisted upon is a loud tone or high pitch of voice, elicited by the usual order to "speak out." And if the teacher and the rest of the class were at any time to close their books, I doubt whether the reader would be intelligible to any of them.

I do not find that the better class of masters have tried any expedients of their own for improving the writing or reading. They do not, in fact, seem conscious of the importance of these subjects and the deficiencies of their scholars.

In schools which are qualified for Government grants, the teachers are persons of intelligence and information; the apparatus and organization are excellent; but I do not see the corresponding superiority in the art of teaching that might have been expected. When we come to the schools which do not reach the standard, in funds or in numbers, which qualifies for a claim to Government grants, the teachers are either persons who have been trained for the employment but have not obtained a certificate, or they are persons who have had no special training.

Among the latter class are many who, though deficient in education, yet possess qualities of good sense, industry, and high character, which enable them to fill their position with success. Managers of schools who have such a master would seldom be willing to supersede him by a trained and certificated master.

Masters of this class, if supported and aided by an active clergyman, are, I think, fully adequate to the wants of country districts.

The other class of teachers referred to, consisting generally of young men who have been trained more or less, is not so satisfactory. They are usually rather unsettled, looking out for schools where larger stipend is offered; and there have been a good many instances in which their characters have not proved good.

There is certainly at present considerable difficulty in finding masters for schools which cannot offer a salary of more than 40*l.* or 50*l.* a year. Young men of good character are wanted far more than masters of high attainments; and training colleges do not seem to supply men enough of the right stamp. If the price which masters can command were proportionate only to their intellectual attainments, country schools might secure masters good enough for their wants; but, unfortunately, a man whose services can be obtained for a moderate stipend is often one whose character will not bear close investigation. Training colleges for masters have not yet, I think, done much towards meeting the wants of small country schools.

I have had very little opportunity of learning whether certificated teachers are, as a body, dissatisfied with their position. I met with one man who had left the profession and taken the situation of clerk in a post office, and he assured me that many schoolmasters are dissatisfied. His own complaint was, that his position, as a person of education, was not recognized as he thought it should have been.

In most small villages the managers of the school think a mistress competent to conduct the education of the children; particularly if there is a school under a master within two or three miles to which the bigger boys can be sent. There is a large class of young schoolmistresses who have been trained in some normal school, but have not a certificate. They are vastly superior to the young trained, but uncertificated, masters. I have found managers well satisfied with them. They have a great deal of method, keep good order, seem to teach well, and evince a superiority of manner which must have a humanizing effect upon the children.

School buildings.

A large number of the school buildings are new. It is usual to find the school one of the newest and the most ornamental building in the village next to the church. A very large proportion of them are good buildings; that is, large, lofty, and well lighted and ventilated. In almost all that have been recently built the system of parallel desks has been adopted. Few, comparatively speaking, are supplied with a class-room.

In most school-rooms, except in cases where Government aid is received, the floors are of brick. From the answers given to my inquiries by teachers, I am satisfied that the Committee of Council have acted wisely, although against the strong opinion of many school managers, in insisting upon wooden floors in all schools which they assist. If school managers would take the

place of the teacher for a few days in winter they would perceive the great and injurious discomfort of cold and (as they usually are) damp floors; and might see that there is a wide difference between a brick floor in a school, on which the feet of the children rest for two or three hours, and a brick floor in a cottage, on which the feet probably scarcely rest at all.

Except in this particular, village school-rooms are generally as good as could be desired.

I have already said that the art of teaching reading and writing Teaching and its effects. does not seem to be studied by the better class of teachers. There is not the progress that there might be in these subjects. Consequently when a child reaches the upper classes of the school, its time is still chiefly occupied in practising reading, writing, and cyphering. In agricultural parishes the attendance of the older children is so much interrupted, that a great part of the time during which they are in school is spent in recovering the power of reading, &c., which they possessed the year before. Teachers, therefore, in such parishes seem to find very little opportunity for exercising the memory of their pupils, calling into play their reasoning powers, or storing their minds with information. All teachers who have been trained do attempt to exercise the intellects of the children and to give them some knowledge of facts. The oral lessons and questions are, I think, chiefly directed to the latter object. But in country schools the children leave before any decided development of their minds can take place; little or no curiosity or desire of knowledge has been awakened in them; they read no books; and if they reappear after a few years at the evening school, they are always more deficient than when they left the national school, and not unfrequently have lost the power both of reading and writing; and the only trace of their previous education is found in the comparative facility with which they regain what they had lost.

In villages such a thing as a public library is almost unknown. There is often a small one placed in the school by the managers, and the use of it is frequently allowed to others besides the scholars. But it is seldom that these libraries are replenished, and when the books have been read a few times, the interest in the library ceases.

In some districts considerable trouble has been taken to establish book-hawking; but it is obvious that persons of the labouring class can never buy books to furnish them with sufficient reading. The opinion of intelligent persons interested in book-hawking is that the want of libraries is not at all diminished by this method of circulating books. It is surprising that scarcely anything in the shape of combination exists among villages, by which books can be interchanged and passed on from one village library to another. Among the rules of the Downham Market library, is one which provides that the inhabitants of any neighbouring parish may jointly subscribe, and take out books, not exceeding 45 at a time, and retain them for 28 days. In the first report (1857) three villages are mentioned as obtaining books under this

rule. Great facilities are thus offered for supplying the labouring class with books of a superior kind.

Every town has one or more public libraries. There is also generally a mechanics' institute, containing a news-room and a library. Disappointment is usually expressed by the promoters of mechanics' institutes; the class for which these institutes were intended is not drawn to them so much as was hoped. The majority of readers is of a better class.* The character of books read is represented very fairly by the following analysis of books issued from the Downham Market library in the year 1857:—

Novels	-	-	-	390
Tales of interest	-	-	-	372
Biography	-	-	-	303
History	-	-	-	178
Voyages, Travels, &c.	-	-	-	120
Theology	-	-	-	109
Miscellaneous	-	-	-	92
Arts and sciences	-	-	-	64
Poetry	-	-	-	21

The attempt to carry on classes for instruction in connexion with mechanics' institutes has *generally* failed. At Lincoln these classes are said to be conducted with much success; at Gainsborough three classes were set on foot, superintended by excellent voluntary teachers, for drawing, singing, and reading and writing; the attempt was not very successful, and was given up for want of funds to hire and light the room. In other places the offer to open a class meets with no encouragement.

Lectures at such institutes are generally popular and pretty well attended; they are not, however, systematic enough to be of much real use in promoting education.

In two or three villages reading-rooms have been established, but they have failed when the novelty has worn off.

Religious
teaching.

In schools connected with the Church of England the church catechism is always taught; and there is also generally a daily lesson in scripture, sometimes given by the clergyman. It usually consists in reading a chapter with questions and explanations upon it. In other schools, Wesleyan, Baptist, &c, I have not found any general formulary in use in the week-day course of lessons; the Bible lesson is, however, universal, and is, of course, made the vehicle for distinctive religious teaching; but this seldom appears a matter of much weight with parents in the choice of a school. It is extremely rare to find a church school which does not contain several children of dissenters, and I have been constantly assured that no objection is known to be entertained to the religious instruction given in the school. When the rule of the school requires the attendance of all the children on Sunday, there often

* Extract from the Report of the Committee of the Downham Public Library:—
“ While there is much in this fact that is greatly encouraging, it is yet to be regretted
“ that so few of the class of persons for whose advantage, in particular, the Library
“ was established, are found availing themselves of the advantages so presented.”

are objections made, but even then the objections do not originate so much with the parents as with the teachers and managers of the dissenting Sunday school; often, too, the children of dissenters attend the church Sunday school when there is no rule requiring such attendance.

In the districts which I have visited the persons who are most Results. deeply interested, though in widely different senses, in the condition of the labouring classes, are the farmers and the clergy. If the question were put to the farmers, whether the labourers are in their opinion any the better for education, the answer would generally be in the negative. Farmers do not find the labourer any the more valuable for being able to read, write, &c.; on the contrary, if they express any preference, it is that they would rather have domestic servants *unable* to read and write. They attribute the restless character which distinguishes the servants and labourers of the present day to education, and this is a feeling with regard to domestic servants widely shared in by persons of other classes. I need not here point out other causes to which the evil complained of may be in part traced; but the feeling of farmers towards education is certainly unfavourable. A few (very few) of the more intelligent and liberal minded subscribe to the school in their villages, but even these speak doubtfully of the results as seen in the condition of the labourers; I have, however, heard the important admission that boys are now *better behaved* than when fewer went to school. But generally the farmer meets your inquiries by instancing some of the best, most faithful, laborious, and respectable of his servants as entirely uneducated. The great body of farmers are entirely indifferent to the education of the poor, and there are many who are positively hostile to it.

The uneducated state of the great mass of farmers makes one attach little value to their opinion upon this question; but their decided indifference suggests this discouraging conclusion, that the educated farm labourer has not proved himself to be at all more valuable to his employer than the uneducated: no promotion (in his own line of life), no increase of wages, are held out as the reward of present self-denial. The influence of education upon his worldly condition is only indirect. The want of more immediate and direct inducement is at the bottom of the general carelessness of parents with regard to the attendance of their children at school.

If now an opinion is sought from the parochial clergy, who take a deeper and more intelligent interest in the welfare of the poor than any other class, their answer is given in the extreme care which they bestow upon the school, the great cost which they bear in supporting it, the time and personal attention which they give to it, and the anxiety which they express for some means of increasing its efficiency. Nothing could more strongly express their unanimous confidence that education, such as they try to make it, that is, religious as well as secular, does succeed in improving the condition of the labouring class. I do not think that the clergy set much value upon secular *without* religious teaching; and if the

latter were excluded, public schools in villages would, I think, almost cease to exist.

Landed proprietors, where they are resident and take an interest in the poor, generally take such a part in the support of the school as to show that their opinion of education agrees with the feeling of the clergy.

Important testimony to the good effect of education is borne by schoolmasters, who say that the children of educated parents are generally distinguished from the others by being cleaner, more regular, and more manageable.

The managers of schools and persons interested in the question of education appear to be satisfied with the present system. It possesses the life and vigour usually infused into any work which depends upon voluntary efforts and individual interest, and yet has the character of a national system. It is capable of great improvement. For this it depends chiefly upon the success of training colleges, which, it is hoped, will meet the great want of masters adequately prepared and of good character. The difficulties with which education for the poor has to contend are not difficulties inherent in the prevailing system of schools. One of them is due chiefly to the demand for labour, and for a remedy for this I have heard no sanguine hope expressed and scarcely a suggestion made. The Government system of grants in aid of existing schools has undoubtedly increased their efficiency. It would be taken advantage of much more extensively if the conditions attached to the grants were such as the managers of village schools could comply with.

Considering the difficulties which beset country schools, they are certainly, on the whole, working well and *improving*. They have already accomplished this point—that there are *scarcely any* families who have not within their reach, in point of distance, and within their means, in point of money, an education for their children comprising reading, writing, and cyphering, with more or less facility, together with needlework for the girls.

I have the honour to be,

My Lord Duke and Gentlemen,

Your most obedient servant,

T. HEDLEY,

Assistant Education Commissioner.

To the Commissioners

appointed to inquire into the

State of Popular Education in England.

APPENDIX A.

THE subjoined Table gives the number of children belonging to schools under the heads of public schools for the poor, private schools for the poor, and schools for classes above the poor.

It also gives the number of masters, mistresses, and school-rooms for public schools, in three classes, A., B., C.

Class A. contains all that are decidedly good.

Class B. contains all that are very fair and quite adequate.

Class C. contains all that are bad and inadequate.

The remaining columns refer to private schools for the poor, dividing the teachers into three sets: masters, mistresses (not dames), and dames:—

Name of Union.	No. of Children in Schools.			Masters in Public Schools.			Mistresses in Public Schools.			Public School Rooms.			Teachers of Private Schools.		
	Public.	Private.	Better class.	A.	B.	C.	A.	B.	C.	A.	B.	C.	Masters.	Mistresses.	Dames.
Gainsborough	2,062	1,262	140	11	9	2	6	5	0	18	11	4	7	6	37
Thorne	808	1,032	100	6	5	1	3	0	0	8	3	3	4	12	26
Doncaster	3,976	1,307	350	15	11	5	20	4	2	31	15	4	4	14	17
Lincoln	5,152	1,065	477	21	13	2	16	10	3	37	17	10	4	11	25
Newark	3,511	984	406	15	12	0	8	3	0	24	9	4	4	4	32
Ely	1,895	1,012	275	7	5	0	5	4	0	9	9	3	2	3	40
Downham	1,538	792	193	7	0	1	6	4	1	12	6	4	5	6	22
Thetford	1,701	700	264	5	2	1	10	7	0	14	11	0	4	5	25
Thingoe	1,880	364	86	9	3	1	2	21	6	17	14	7	0	2	20
Bury	1,598	331	458	3	1	0	9	0	1	11	2	1	0	12	15
Mildenhall	818	321	197	3	5	2	2	2	1	9	2	3	2	1	14
Total	24,979	9,240	2,854	101	66	15	87	60	14	190	99	47	36	76	276

The following Table gives the number of schools under the heads of public schools for the poor, private schools for the poor, and schools of a better class:—

Name of Union.	Public Schools.	Private Schools.	Schools of better class.	Total.
Gainsborough	33*	48	4	85
Thorne	14	42	5	61
Doncaster	57	53	15	125
Lincoln	65	42	16	123
Newark	38	40	16	94
Ely	21	45	9	75
Downham	22†	34	8	64
Thetford	26	34	8	68
Thingoe	39	22	—	61
Bury	14	27	13	54
Mildenhall	15	15	5	35
Total	344	402	99	845

* Three others, but closed for a time.

† One other, but closed for a time.

The following Table shows the number of ascertained endowed schools, and the amount of endowment, where ascertained :—

Name of Union.	Number of Endowed Schools.	Amount of Endowment where ascertained.
Ely - -	7	£10, 20, 32, 75.
Downham - -	5	£6, 17, 25 and house and field, 35.
Thetford - -	3	£12, 20.
Thingoe - -	9	£6, 25, 25, 27, 30, 40, 50, 300.
Bury - -	4	£2, 21, 70.
Mildenhall - -	3	£16, 36, 64.
Lincoln - -	13	£5, 5, 7, 10, 12, 20, 22, 30, 42, 50, 210.
Newark - -	10	£4, 5, 9, 28, 30, 38, 44, 65, 80.
Gainsborough - -	8	£12, 12, 16, 19, 20.
Thorne - -	8	£3, 70, 70, 70, 76, 80.
Doncaster - -	14	£2, 6, 6, 10, 10, 10, 15, 20, 20, 21, 40, 58, 74.

The following Table gives the periods, in years, during which teachers were ascertained to have taught the same school :—

Union of	Ascertained Periods during which Teachers have held the same Public School.
Ely - -	1, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4, 7, 11, 14, 16, 24, 40 years.
Downham - -	$\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 1, 4, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 11 years.
Thetford - -	$\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 1, 1, 3, 4, 5, 13, 17 years.
Thingoe - -	$\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 11, 11, 12, 12, 17, 22, 26 years.
Bury - -	3, 6, 6, 7, 9, 30 years.
Mildenhall - -	1, 2, 2, 3, 5, 7, 15 years.
Lincoln - -	$\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 4, 9, 15, 24, 27, 27, 40 years.
Newark - -	$\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 2, 3, 3, 3, 6, 6, 6, 6, 7, 9, 16, 25 years.
Gainsborough - -	$\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 13, 14, 14, 15, 16, 18, 22, 42 years.
Thorne - -	$\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 1, 3, 4, 10, 10, 11, 11, 31 years.
Doncaster - -	$\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4, 4, 5, 7, 8, 8, 9, 11, 13, 13, 16, 16, 18, 18, 22, 30, 30, 37, 38, 60 years.

APPENDIX B.

The following Table shows the comparative ages to which children stay in the week-day and Sunday schools. The upper column is derived from the returns of 211 public schools and 432 private schools, the lower from those of 360 Sunday schools :—

	No. under 3 years.	No. between 3 and 6 years.	No. between 6 and 7 years.	No. between 7 and 8 years.	No. between 8 and 9 years.	No. between 9 and 10 years.	No. between 10 and 11 years.	No. between 11 and 12 years.	No. between 12 and 13 years.	No. between 13 and 14 years.	No. between 14 and 15 years.	No. above 15 years.
Per-centage of children at week-day Schools	2.53	26.43	12.04	12.58	11.87	10.25	8.40	6.40	4.89	2.53	1.02	*48
Ditto at Sunday Schools	.61	17.14	10.87	11.21	11.41	11.11	9.94	8.99	7.57	6.54	3.12	2.35

APPENDIX C.

From the returns of 211 public and 432 private schools, in which the number of children = 21,912, there are 537 under three years of age and 106 above 15. There are, therefore, 3·02 per cent. either under 3 or above 15.

To ascertain how many of the 37,073 children are between 3 and 15, multiply by 1 - ·0302, that is by ·9698.

The result is 35,953.

APPENDIX D.

To estimate the average period of attendance at school :

The whole number of children between 3 and 15 is - 77,973

The number on school books is found to be - - 35,953

Suppose these numbers to be constant, and take no account of deaths between 3 and 15, the number of children found at school must be greater in exact proportion to the length of their stay there. Thus, if there were 77,973 at school, we should conclude that the school period of each must be 12 years. If half were found at school at a time, they would each stay six years. Thus we have the proportion :—

77,973 : 35,953 : : 12 years : the required period.

This will be found to give 5·53 years as the average length of attendance at school.

This will probably be too small,—

1. Because the attendance is so irregular that, even during the years which cover the school period of a child's life, many names are removed for weeks or months from the books, and therefore the above number does not include all who are in one sense belonging to the school, that is, have been there and will be there again.
2. The total number (77,973) includes many who either never go to school, or who hardly ever attend. Consequently the strict average does not fairly represent the average period for the children who do go to school.

The following Table of the ages of boys at school is taken from the returns of 211 public and 432 private schools :—

	Number of Boys present at the School.	No. under 3 years.	No. between 3 and 6 years.	No. between 6 and 7 years.	No. between 7 and 8 years.	No. between 8 and 9 years.	No. between 9 and 10 years.	No. between 10 and 11 years.	No. between 11 and 12 years.	No. between 12 and 13 years.	No. between 13 and 14 years.	No. between 14 and 15 years.	No. above 15 years.
	11,302	291	2,868	1,556	1,474	1,400	1,196	929	687	491	262	103	45
Per-centage	100	2·57	25·37	13·76	13·04	12·38	10·58	8·22	6·07	4·34	2·31	0·91	0·39

The small difference between the numbers in the 4th, 5th, and 6th columns is probably not much more than will be caused by deaths.

From this Table we may conclude that—

1. Boys at nine years of age begin to leave school finally ;
2. 13·76 per cent. is the greatest number of any one age, viz., six years old.
3. If all boys who pass through the school at all are in at that age (as is probable), the average school period will be obtained by dividing 100 by 13·76 ; and this gives 7·26 years for the average period of schooling for boys. This is too long, because these tables manifestly contain the more regular attendants, and omit many of the irregular.

The next Table is a similar one for girls :

	Number of girls present at School.	No. under 3 years.	No. between 3 and 6 years.	No. between 6 and 7 years.	No. between 7 and 8 years.	No. between 8 and 9 years.	No. between 9 and 10 years.	No. between 10 and 11 years.	No. between 11 and 12 years.	No. between 12 and 13 years.	No. between 13 and 14 years.	No. between 14 and 15 years.	No. above 15 years.
	10,620	268	2,824	1,288	1,386	1,206	1,053	930	714	679	293	120	61
Per-centage	100	2·50	26·61	12·13	12·12	11·36	9·92	8·76	6·73	5·45	2·76	1·13	0·57

From this Table it appears that girls begin to leave school at eight years of age, but they do not pass out of the school so rapidly as boys. Their average stay at school is also longer, being by this Table, 8·24 years.

APPENDIX E.

The following Table is formed from the Returns of 211 public schools :—

	Number present at School.	No. under 3 years.	No. between 3 and 6 years.	No. between 6 and 7 years.	No. between 7 and 8 years.	No. between 8 and 9 years.	No. between 9 and 10 years.	No. between 10 and 11 years.	No. between 11 and 12 years.	No. between 12 and 13 years.	No. between 13 and 14 years.	No. between 14 and 15 years.	No. above 15 years.
Boys	7,972	140	1,512	1,002	1,076	1,116	976	787	585	483	223	80	37
Per-centage	100	1·75	18·93	12·56	13·40	13·99	12·24	9·87	7·33	5·40	2·79	1·00	0·46
Girls	6,468	115	1,458	672	782	788	696	671	526	435	225	80	50
Per-centage	100	1·76	22·43	10·34	12·03	12·14	10·71	10·30	8·09	6·69	3·46	1·22	0·76

APPENDIX F.

The following Table is formed from the returns from 125 public schools, and gives some idea of the portion of time actually spent at school :

Number of Scholars who attended School in 1858.						
	Less than 50 days.	Between 50 and 100 days.	Between 100 and 150 days.	Between 150 and 200 days.	Above 200 days.	Total No. of Children returned.
	2,089	2,382	2,572	2,971	1,882	11,896
Per-centage	17.5	20.2	21.6	24.9	15.8	100

The number of scholars on the books of the schools at the time these returns were made was only 11,366, whereas this Table includes 11,896 children. This difference is no doubt owing to the fact that many children have been entered who had left the school when the return was made, but had attended part of the previous year. This would chiefly affect the numbers in the first and second columns.

If we take 230 to be the number of days on which the school is at work, the above Table leads to the conclusions—

1. Nearly 40 per cent. attend school less than half the year.
2. 60 per cent. attend school less than three-quarters of the year.

APPENDIX G.

The Clerk of the Board of Guardians for the Union of Gainsborough favoured me with a copy of the return which the Board had just called for. It was as follows :—

RETURN of the NUMBER of CHILDREN of PAUPERS in the UNION of GAINSBOROUGH between the ages of 4 and 16 (Nov. 1858).

Whole number of children	-	-	-	-	179
Number at work	-	-	-	-	22
Absent from school for other causes	-	-	-	-	49
At school	-	-	-	-	108

This return was called for in consequence of one of the guardians proposing that the children of out-door paupers should be sent to school at the expense of the Union.

APPENDIX II.

The following Table shows the sources from which the annual subscriptions come in the case of certain schools in which I had opportunity to make the inquiry :—

ANNUAL SUBSCRIPTIONS paid by LANDOWNERS, OCCUPIERS, and CLERGY.

School.	From Owners.	From Occupiers.	From Clergy.
1	£ 12 and house	£	£
2	—	10*	10
3	—	11†	25
4	—	4	15
5	47	—	—
6	—	—	100‡
7	—	—	30
8	5	3	5
9	—	20	40
10	20	—	10
11	—	—	40
12	30	—	—
13	60‡	—	—
14	—	—	70
15	—	3	50
16	—	—	16
17	—	—	25
18	24	7	25

* By a voluntary penny rate.

† For two united parishes.

‡ The owner is also the clergyman.

REPORT

OF

J. S. WINDER, Esq.

REPORT of ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER, J. S. WINDER, Esq., on
the State of Popular Education in the Specimen Manufacturing
DISTRICTS of ROCHDALE and BRADFORD, in the Counties of
LANCASTER and YORK.

MY LORD DUKE AND GENTLEMEN, London, July 1859.

BEFORE entering specifically into the consideration of the questions which are suggested by the Instructions, it is necessary to say a few preliminary words respecting the characteristics of the country and the people among which my investigation has been carried on. The distribution of population, the numerical relation of classes, the nature of the prevailing employments, the domestic habits of families, must in every district have a marked influence upon its educational condition, and in none can they have a more determinate effect than in those which I have been deputed to examine.

The Poor Law Union of Rochdale comprises, in addition to the borough, a large rural district. The town itself is of considerable size, containing probably about 33,000 inhabitants, and presenting the ordinary features of an exclusively manufacturing place. From it, as from a centre, roads radiate in seven or eight directions, along each of which are scattered woollen and cotton factories, with their groups of attendant cottages expanding here and there into considerable manufacturing villages. High and bleak tracts of moorland intersect and encircle a great portion of the district, but mills have been planted up to the base of the hills, and tall chimneys may be seen dotting the remotest corners, wherever there is a supply of water and near access to coal. The region, generally, is bare and barren, and, but for the manufacturing system, would have been but a thinly peopled and solitary tract. As it is, the outlying portions of it are a good deal isolated, and the people, though their own immediate village community may be tolerably large, live very much amongst themselves, and are removed from the influences for good and evil which are at work in the great centres of manufacturing industry.

Description of
districts.
Union of
Rochdale.

Up to a short time ago hardly any means of public instruction existed except Sunday schools, and the habits of the people were in the highest degree uncivilized and rude. Even now, language and manners, particularly in the remoter corners, are strikingly blunt and abrupt, and many primitive customs, amongst others, that of dispensing with surnames, still linger in parts of the district. Milnrow, the recognized metropolis and classic centre of the Lancashire dialect, where the true idiom is said to be still preserved in great purity, is within two miles of the town, and a stranger finds no little difficulty in following a dialogue in the broad unadulterated provincialism which still holds its ground in spite of the spread of instruction.

Neither in town nor country is there any but a very small population whose employment does not depend, directly or indirectly, on the cotton and woollen manufacture. A majority, I believe, of the persons earning weekly wages, are engaged in or about the factories themselves. The rest, for the most part, find occupation either as coal miners or artizans for the factories, or as petty tradesmen, by supplying the ordinary wants of the operative class.

Union of
Bradford.

The Union of Bradford is in many respects of a widely different character. In geographical extent it is more compact, being confined to the limits of the borough, and containing merely the united townships of Bradford, Bowling, Horton, and Manningham. The population, however, is much larger and more concentrated, and may be considered for the most part a town population; the outlying districts being in the immediate neighbourhood of the town, and very intimately connected with it. Like Rochdale, it is a great manufacturing place, having, from an insignificant country town, which it was forty years ago, grown into the metropolis of the worsted trade. It is not, however, like Rochdale, simply a producing town. In addition to its mills, it is studded with huge warehouses, English and foreign, for collecting and distributing through the world the special fabrics of the neighbourhood. It comprises, too, within the limits of the borough, the large iron works of the Bowling Company, beside several extensive foundries more immediately in the town. In the immediate neighbourhood also is the vast establishment of the Low Moor Ironworks, at which a considerable number of workmen from the outskirts find employment. This greater variety of occupations has, as will be seen, a decided effect upon the educational state of the place as compared with that of Rochdale.

There are noticeable differences, too, in the composition of the two populations. With the exception of a considerable Irish colony in the town itself, the people of the Rochdale Union are in the main indigenous, possessing, I should imagine, in a pre-eminent degree the peculiar qualities of Lancashire character. Bradford, on the contrary, contains a vast number of immigrants from all parts of Great Britain; the Irish alone I heard variously estimated from 12,000 to 18,000. The fact must be taken into account in every estimate founded on numerical returns relating to the whole population. The habits and feelings of immigrants, for the most part very poor and very uneducated, must not be regarded as characteristic of the true Bradford people, born and bred in the place, or transformed by residence into the Yorkshire type.

The conditions of labour in both districts have an important bearing on the diffusion and standard of education. The two most distinguishing features in this respect are the employment of children on the half-time system, and the great extent, even preponderance, of female labour in factories.

Half-time
system in Roch-
dale.

The half-time system is developed to a high degree in Rochdale. The demand for infant labour, during a season of good trade is ex-

ceedingly active; so active, in fact, that no child from eight or nine to thirteen years of age who is able to pass the statutory surgical examination has the smallest difficulty in finding employment at wages varying from 1s. 6d. to 2s. 9d. a week, and averaging probably 2s. 6d. I found, consequently, upwards of 3,500 of these children in the various schools within the Union which were visited.

Bradford, though the total number of its children is much greater, does not employ half the number of short-timers in its mills. Only about 1,500 of them were at school during my visit. The system is, I was told, declining there. The manufacturers find the labour of full-time children more profitable or convenient, and a supply equal to their wants is forthcoming.

The difference in the amount of compulsory education in the two places produces, as will be seen, a marked difference between them, both in the comparative number of children at school and in the length of school attendance.

In both places, but more especially, I think, in Bradford, the number of females employed in factories is much greater than that of males. They are preferred for almost every kind of work to which their strength is equal, partly because of superior handiness and docility, but chiefly on account of the greater cheapness of their labour.

Owing to the temptation of high wages, and sometimes from the necessity of contributing to the family maintenance, many married women work regularly in the mills. In such cases the young children, if there are any, are left in the charge either of some old woman, or, as constantly is the case, of their elder brothers and sisters of the age of 6 and upwards. A very large number of children, particularly girls, are kept away from school in this way; and thus the factory system, which by compulsory half time encourages education in the later part of school life, discourages it in the earlier, by throwing upon young children what ought properly to be their mother's work. Its results in this direction from other causes will be touched upon hereafter.

On the whole, the people at the time of my visit were fully employed, and in the receipt of very sufficient wages. These do not differ materially in the two places, and I believe the following would be something like the average scale in the ordinary occupations:—

	Per Week.
Skilled labourers, such as woollsorters, mechanics, overlookers, &c., &c.	- - - 23s. to 26s.
Warehousemen	- - - 20s. to 24s.
Common labourers	- - - 15s. to 17s.
Adult women	- - - 9s. to 12s.
Young persons, male and female (13 to 16)	- - 6s. to 9s.
Short-timers, ditto (8 to 13)	1s. 6d. to 2s. 9d.
Colliers and miners	- - - 18s. 22s. 25s.
Hurriers (boys in coal pits) (10 to 15)	- 5s. to 7s.

It is obvious that with remuneration at this rate, with work abundant, and with great facilities for the employment of women

and children, industrious families are far better to do than is usually the case in any but manufacturing places.

Character of
people indus-
trious.

The habits of the people are thoroughly industrial in both districts. Manual labour for wages is accepted unflinchingly by men, women, and children, as the proper business of their lives, and there are consequently but few indications of that spirit, so conspicuous in some places, which seeks to evade the irksomeness and monotony of continuous steady work by some form or other of petty trafficking.

Smallness of
middl class.

Another noticeable circumstance is the enormous numerical disproportion between those who live by weekly wages and those of a higher social standing. In the united populations, amounting to more than 200,000 souls, I should imagine there are not ten resident gentlemen of fortune and leisure unconnected with business or a profession. The professional class is relatively small; the shopkeepers, from the cause already indicated, and, as far as Rochdale is concerned, from the extension of the co-operative system, are, I have no doubt, much below the average number; while the direct employers of labour, who constitute the bulk of the remaining part of the middle class, are, owing to the great scale of their operations, numerically insignificant in comparison with the workmen in their pay.

Mode of con-
ducting inquiry.

In carrying on the investigation, I met with the utmost courtesy, and received the readiest assistance from almost every person to whom I applied. The managers of the Catholic public schools, acting under central orders, alone refused to give information, or to admit me to their schools; with this exception, every school, both public and private, was opened to me. I personally visited every public school but one in both districts, and a large number of private schools of every grade, with a view of forming a judgment on their condition. With respect to the statistical information which I had to collect, my clerk, where it seemed necessary, assisted in preparing the public school returns, and filled up those relating to private schools, almost without exception, himself; I believe, therefore, that on the whole the numerical returns are trustworthy, but in all calculations made from them, I have eliminated those in which, for one reason or another, I have not full confidence.

This prefatory statement may serve to throw some light on the facts respecting the extension and condition of education which I now proceed to set out. Following the order of the instructions, I propose, first, to give in a brief and compendious form the chief statistical results which have been obtained, and afterwards to go on to those portions of the inquiry which do not admit of definite arithmetical statement.

Population of
Districts.

The population of the Rochdale Union, in 1851, was 72,515; but from an inspection of the rate books, and from other sources of information, I should fix it at present at 86,000. Bradford, which, in 1851, had 103,778 inhabitants, is now estimated by the police and the municipal authorities to have 130,000. The Town-

clerk was kind enough to furnish me with his calculations to this effect, but if the authority had not been so high, I should have been inclined to suspect that the estimate was too liberal. The population here is subject to great fluctuations; when trade is depressed, as it was during the latter part of the last eight years, emigration takes place to a considerable extent, the balance being redressed in turn by the immigration which sets in on the revival of business. However, the opinion of the authorities on the spot, who have the best information, is paramount, and it must consequently be assumed that their calculations are correct.

The first point which it seems desirable to inquire into, is the progress which day school education has made since 1851.

The Census Returns relate only to the schools found within the geographical limits of either district, taking no account of those beyond the boundaries, into which a certain number of children living within the boundaries find their way. The following Table, therefore, constructed for the purpose of comparing the present state of things with that ascertained to exist at the Census, is confined to the same area, and adopts the same definition of a school as was then taken:—

Comparison
with census
returns.

	ROCHDALE.						BRADFORD.					
	Schools.			Scholars.			Schools.			Scholars.		
	Total.	Public.	Private.	Total.	Public.	Private.	Total.	Public.	Private.	Total.	Public.	Private.
1851	115	28	77	7,796	4,852	2,944	116	27	89	9,579	5,946	3,633
1858-9	135	35	100	10,645	6,808	3,837	196	30	166	12,197	6,891	5,306

It would thus appear,—

1. That the proportion to the total population of the children under instruction in either district has advanced, in Rochdale from 1 in 9·30 to 1 in 8·07, in Bradford from 1 in 10·83 to 1 in 10·65.
2. That the number of private schools has largely increased in both places, while that of public schools has diminished in Rochdale, and but very slightly increased in Bradford.
3. That the proportion of public to private scholars has slightly increased in Rochdale (from the ratio of 1·6 to 1 to the ratio of 1·7 to 1), and declined in Bradford (from the ratio of 1·6 to 1 to the ratio of 1·2 to 1).

However, I do not place much reliance on the accuracy of these comparisons. I am quite sure that the number of public schools, according to the professed definition, was largely overstated at the Census. Since that time many have been established, and very few indeed, if any, discontinued, and yet the total number existing at each period would appear to be identical. How the error arose it is difficult to say, whether by including a

certain number of private schools, or by counting departments of schools as distinct establishments. I feel convinced too that the number of scholars in private schools was exaggerated. The present average is but 31, the census average 40. Taking all circumstances therefore into consideration, I see no reason to doubt that in both places, but more particularly in Rochdale, considerable progress has been made, both absolutely and relatively, to the increase of population.

Actual number
of children at
School.

The preceding table does not show the real number of the children at school. It was necessary, for the sake of fair comparison, to include in it no school whose buildings do not stand geographically within the limits of the districts. The next table, however, comprises a number of children, who, though living within the districts, go to school beyond the boundaries, and exhibits a complete list, both of the scholars at school, and of the schools (in the sense of the word laid down in the statistical forms) in which they were found.

	ROCHDALE.				BRADFORD.			
	Schools.	Scholars.			Schools.	Scholars.		
		Total.	M.	F.		Total.	M.	F.
Higher Schools - -	18	389	181	208	24	794	450	344
Catholic Schools (estimated)	2	150	80	70	3	300	165	135
Public { within Union,	41	6,628	3,866	2,762	49	6,493	3,575	2,918
Schools. { out of Union,	13	374	239	135	1	35	17	18
Private { within Union,	82	3,478	1,626	1,852	144	4,610	2,305	2,305
Schools. { out of Union,	5	34	20	14	3	75	66	9
Total - - -	161	11,053	6,012	5,041	224	12,307	6,578	5,729

This shows that in Rochdale 1 out of 7.78 inhabitants, in Bradford 1 out of 10.56, is a day scholar. The difference in the proportions in the two places arises mainly, if not wholly, from the different extent to which they use the half-time system. Not only are the half-timers more numerous, but on the average they have a longer period of half-time, at Rochdale than at Bradford, I found the following number of these children at school in either place:—

Extent of half-
time system.

	Half-Timers.		
	Total	Males.	Females.
Rochdale - -	3,540	1,933	1,607
Bradford - -	1,505	586	919

And I ascertained, by individual inquiry from 2,143 of them at

Rochdale, and 1,147 at Bradford, that they are divided amongst the several years of the half-time period according to the subjoined per-centages.

	Per-centage of Half-timers, aged.					
	8	9	10	11	12	13
Rochdale - -	8.87	16.42	22.54	22.54	24.78	4.85
Bradford - -	1.74	7.67	20.05	25.55	41.24	3.75

The fact, which these tables prove, that in Rochdale the number of children under compulsory education is much larger, and their compulsory period much longer, to my mind sufficiently accounts for the accompanying superiority of the proportion borne to the general population by the children at school. In the one place more, in the other fewer, children are sent to work which involves schooling at the same time; and that, much more than any difference in educational zeal, explains the relative position in which one district stands to the other. Indeed, in one important respect,—the maintenance of night schools and literary institutions,—Bradford has decidedly the advantage.

But however this may be, and whatever theory may be adopted of the exact proportion of the population who *ought* to be at school, it is certain that in both places the day scholars fall short, in Bradford very largely short, of the number who might be at school. Does this arise from the fact that many children never go to school at all?

What proportion of children never go to school at all.

The general impression which I found to exist amongst well informed persons is that this evil is rare, and that it is steadily diminishing. Still it does exist to a certain extent, though, how far, it is impossible to say, without an exhaustive enumeration of the people. My own inquiries, which were rather extensive, would lead me to believe that amongst the respectable working men in the towns, this absolute neglect is almost unknown, and that so much of it as there may be is confined almost exclusively to the lowest of the immigrant Irish, who prefer that their children should beg; to a few of the degraded class brutalized by profligacy and poverty; and to the more ignorant of the colliers and miners. I met myself, both at evening schools and elsewhere, a good many colliers above the school age, who had never been to a day school in their lives. On one occasion, at Bowling near Bradford, four boys in succession, whom I casually met with, gave this account of themselves.

I cannot, however, state with precision what proportion of the population are growing up in this condition. Individual inquiry on the point was made at evening schools with this result:—

—	Number of Scholars of whom inquiry was made.	Number who had never been to Day School.	Per-centage who had never been to Day School.
Rochdale - -	1,825	52	2·85
Bradford - -	2,065	131	6·34

I strongly suspect, however, that these rates would be too high for the general population; though when one sees, as is the fact, numbers of children coming to school for the first time at 10 or 11 years of age, and then only by the compulsion of half-time, it is difficult not to believe that a good many must slip through the school age altogether.

At all events the deficiency of the proper number of day scholars at a given time is due in a very slight degree to this cause. It is the shortness of the school attendance, of which I shall speak hereafter, which is principally in fault.

Proportion of public to private scholars.

The preceding tables have been chiefly designed to indicate the number of the Day Scholars. I will next speak of the schools in which they were found, having previously drawn attention to the fact, which is deducible from the 2nd table, that the children receiving elementary education are distributed between public and private schools according to the following proportions:—

—	Per-centage of Scholars in public Schools.	Per-centage of Scholars in Private Schools.
Rochdale - - - - -	67·1	32·9
Bradford - - - - -	59·4	40·6

Classification of schools.

1. Private.

It is impossible to classify these according to any very accurate and distinct definition. Perhaps the following types, under which they may all be included, are sufficiently precise for the present purpose.

Dame schools.

1.—*Dame Schools*, whose aim is to teach sewing and reading and now and then the elements of writing, form by far the most numerous section. About half of the Bradford private elementary schools are of this class. Fifty out of 147, or 34 per cent., return themselves as not teaching writing, and many others, which do profess it, teach only the merest elements to a small portion of their scholars. At Rochdale the proportion is smaller. Thirty of the private schools there take factory scholars, and for children of their age writing is usually demanded; nevertheless in 14 out of 87 schools, or in 16 per cent., that accomplishment is unknown. The usual scene of one of these schools is a cottage kitchen, in

I.—PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

which the mistress divides her time between her pupils and her domestic duties. The children sit round the room, often so thickly stowed as to occupy every available corner, and spend the greater portion of their time in knitting and sewing. At intervals the mistress calls them up one or two at a time, and teaches the alphabet or easy words, the highest proficiency attained being the power of reading a little in the New Testament. The rest of their time the children are acquiring an insight into "common things" by watching the domestic operations. To a great extent these schools are mere nurseries. They do not, however, occupy quite the same field as infant schools. The average age of their scholars is higher. Indeed a good many girls finish their education in them, though they are ordinarily looked on as merely preparatory.

2.—Next in order is a class of schools conducted by men and women of somewhat higher pretensions, the scholars being older and the range of the education more extensive. Of these there are of course several grades. 2. Superior day schools.

Some, which seem to depend a good deal on the reputation of their gentility, charge from 6*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* a week, and draw their chief support from the higher class of artizans and the smaller shopkeepers, who do not wish their children to mix, as they must do in a public school, with companions from a lower stratum of society.

Another and more numerous class have a humbler aim, and come into immediate competition with the ordinary public schools, recruiting their scholars from the same sources, and professing instruction of the same kind and scope. A perpetual flux and reflux of scholars is maintained between the two kinds of establishments. They often coexist side by side; more frequently, however, the private school sets up in some district in which there are either no public schools or only an insufficient supply. A good many occupy Sunday school rooms attached to chapels, and have space and accommodation enough; others are held in sitting-rooms in cottages miserably overcrowded and unprovided with almost all the matériel of teaching. The school fees in these schools is somewhat higher than that demanded in public schools for the same style of education. The private masters complain bitterly of the competition, which except in very favourable situations renders it difficult for them to earn a living.

The support which the private schools of this class receive seems to arise from three causes; first, with regard to a few, from a notion that they are somewhat more select than public schools, as I have previously mentioned; secondly, from an impression which some parents entertain that more individual attention is paid in them to the scholars; and, thirdly, from the influence of acquaintanceship between masters and parents. Generally speaking, however, in spite of the fact that the *private schools* have *hitherto held their ground*, I think that there is a decided preference for public schools, especially in Rochdale. There, wherever a good public school is established sufficiently large for the wants of Causes of support of private schools.
Public schools on the whole preferred.

the neighbourhood, and tolerably accessible, it gradually annihilates, or nearly annihilates, all the private establishments round it; and though the same result, owing probably to the concentration of the population in a smaller space, which makes the situation of the schools a matter of less moment, is not so conspicuous in Bradford, yet the same feeling prevails.

Private schools
ephemeral.

Private elementary schools are very ephemeral. At Bradford 101 out of 147 have been established in or since 1851. Anyone seems to be thought good enough to teach if he have the audacity to make the attempt, and in consequence schools are perpetually springing up, wherever an opportunity of success is thought to presents itself, to be relinquished as readily if the expected success does not immediately arrive.

3. Factory
schools.

3. Thirty of the private schools in Rochdale and five in Bradford are factory schools, *i.e.*, grant certificates of school attendance to children employed in factories.

The Factory Acts merely require that the children at work in mills shall be concurrently at school, but they do not define what the schools shall be, or how they shall be provided. Hence if a mill springs up in a remote district, where the population is insufficient to maintain a public school, either the millowner must himself provide one, or, as is more usual, a private master, under the patronage of the millowner, sets up in the immediate neighbourhood for the single purpose of granting the necessary certificates. In some cases, as at Greenbooth, &c., the factory master himself gives a room for the purpose, and appoints the master; more frequently, as at Summit, &c., the schoolmaster teaches in his own cottage or in a Sunday-school.

Factory schools
dependent on
millowners.

The most noticeable circumstance with respect to factory schools, both public and private, is this, that they are dependent for support on the millowners, not on the parents of their scholars. It is more convenient, it is said, for the millowner that his half-timers should be confined to one or two schools, and it is well understood to be the rule of each factory, and the condition precedent of employment in it, that its half-timers shall go to the particular school which the owner thinks fit to patronise. So long, therefore as a certain number of factories support a school, its prosperity, if its scholars, as sometimes happens, are almost exclusively factory children, depends in no degree on its efficiency. If it comes up to the very moderate requirements of the Factory Inspectors, it may defy competition, and disregard remonstrance. I shall have occasion to speak hereafter of some of the consequences of this custom, at present it is sufficient to indicate its existence. Excepting in this point of view, that they are in a great measure dependent on the employers of labour, private factory schools differ but little from ordinary private schools. They are somewhat rougher, perhaps, but the kind of instruction given in them is the same as would be given in the same locality in day schools.

II.—PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

With respect to the statistics of public schools, there is but little need to add anything to the annexed table, which shows the denominationalism of the schools, the extent of the part which each religious body takes in the general work, and the various species of schools which are in operation:—

Description of Schools.	ROCHDALE.						BRADFORD.						
	Number of Establishments.		Number of Schools.			Number of Establishments.		Number of Schools.			Number of Scholars belonging to the Schools.		
	M.	F.	Total	M.	F.	Total	M.	F.	Total	M.	F.	Total	
PUBLIC DAY SCHOOLS -	44	54	4,105	2,897	7,002	29	50	3,592	2,936	6,528			
Church of England -	21	25	2,779	1,875	4,654	15	27	2,133	1,928	4,061			
National -	14	18	2,437	1,648	4,085	12	23	1,875	1,517	3,392			
Endowed -	3	3	176	46	222	-	-	-	-	-			
Workhouse -	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	30	41	71			
Others -	4	4	166	181	347	2	2	228	370	598			
Wesleyan -	2	3	191	139	330	5	8	641	373	1,014			
Independent -	1	1	93	40	133	4	7	557	390	947			
British -	-	-	-	-	-	2	4	385	195	580			
Others -	1	1	93	40	133	2	3	172	195	367			
Baptists -	1	1	21	31	52	1	1	36	9	45			
Non-denominational -	9	11	782	677	1,459	3	6	208	278	426			
British -	3	5	514	439	953	-	-	-	-	-			
Ragged Schools -	1	1	22	18	40	2	5	190	182	372			
Endowed -	2	2	54	62	116	-	-	-	-	-			
Supported by Private Persons -	3	3	192	158	350	1	1	18	36	54			
Out of the Union -	10	13	239	135	374	1	1	17	18	35			
Church of England -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
National -	7	9	125	65	190	1	1	17	18	35			
Wesleyan -	1	2	65	40	105	-	-	-	-	-			
One other Denomination, and one none ditto	2	2	49	30	79	-	-	-	-	-			

Not one school in either place is secular in the sense of absolutely excluding religious teaching. By far the larger portion of the schools are in direct connexion with religious communions, and in those which are supported either by single individuals or by a body of subscribers, religious teaching is universally allowed, All give religious instruction.

though in one or two instances in Rochdale it is confined to general instruction in which all sects agree.

The part which the Church of England takes, it will be seen, is largely predominant, and that not only absolutely, but relatively to its means. In both districts the Nonconformists are very numerous, rich, and influential.

Of the public schools within each union, 27 in Rochdale and 23 in Bradford take factory scholars. Of these again, 3 at Rochdale, (Buckley, Oakenrod, and Belfield,) and one at Bradford, (Messrs. Walker and Co.), are maintained by private manufacturing firms, to whose factories they are attached. Messrs. Walker's school, (which educates about 538 children, and is by far the largest school in Bradford,) and that of the Belfield Company, are under Government inspection and receive Government aid.

Endowed schools.

Bradford, it will be observed, has no endowed schools, and but one free school, "The School of Industry," for 60 girls, supported by voluntary contributions.

Rochdale is better provided. In addition to the five appearing in the table, it has, besides, two endowments, which have been transferred for the present to the National schools of Whitworth and Milnrow, and one attached to the Red Cross Street National schools in Rochdale.

The following list shows the revenues of the schools as returned to me, and the extent to which they provide free education :—

Name of School.	Endowment.	No. of Free Scholars.
Ogden - - - -	£35	20
Hollingworth - - -	33	16
Milnrow - - - -	24	20
Whitworth - - - -	14	0
Littleborough - - -	20 (?)	14
Toad Lane, Girl's School -	28	26
Rochdale, Free English -	90	60 at 1d. a week.
Rochdale, National - -	24	0
Total - - - -	- -	156

None of these have any special character. With the exception of the Toad Lane girls' school, which is little more than a dame school, they resemble public or national schools of the ordinary type.

Ragged schools.

The ragged school in Rochdale is supported solely by the munificence of the connected families of Kelsall and Kemp, and is under their immediate and constant superintendence.

Those in Bradford are maintained by general subscriptions, and managed by committees. In one of them, the large school in Cropper Lane, a few children are permanently lodged and boarded in the house. The admissions are almost entirely left in the hands of the masters, who on an application being made to them are expected to make personal inquiry as to its fitness.

I found that the schools standing within each district were divided in the following way, as boys', girls', infants', and mixed :—

Division of public schools.

—	Boys.	Girls.	Infants.	Mixed.
Rochdale - -	5	6	8	22
Bradford - -	11	12	11	15

But in no single instance did I find, except at Blue Pits in Rochdale, a combination of infant school, day school, and evening school, in the same establishment. The mixed schools are universally taught by men. The age and somewhat rude habits of factory boys would render them probably too much for a mistress to manage.

The accommodation afforded by public schools, at the rate of eight feet to a scholar within each union, is as follows :—

Accommodation in public schools.

—	Scholars "belonging to" Schools.	Accommodation for
Rochdale - -	6,628	7,160
Bradford - -	6,493	7,822

The existing schools do therefore in the aggregate supply much more than sufficient space for the existing scholars. It would be a fallacy, however, to infer from this that the present supply of schools is adequate. Without entering into the question of the expediency of encroaching upon the number of the children now in private schools, the point obviously is, not whether the school space be sufficient in the aggregate, but whether it be sufficient at each point.

In the Rochdale union, which occupies a large area, no general answer can be given. In many parts, such as Milnrow, Small-bridge, Healey, and Whitworth, the existing establishments are sufficient for present wants. In others, again, as at Summit, and the long valley between Bacup and Whitworth, the supply is altogether inadequate. In the town itself there is a somewhat scanty provision for girls, (which, however, is about to be supplied,) but on the whole any parent desiring a public school education for his child can procure it.

In the Bradford union the schools are by no means well distributed. Whole districts, Bradford Moor, Little Horton, Spinkwell, and a tract by the side of the Wakefield Road, for example, are very inadequately supplied. Other parts, such as the lower end of the Manchester Road, have a plethora. Some schools are but half filled, while others (Stott Hill and St. James' for example), are inconveniently crowded. Still in very few cases is the distance

from home to a school too great for a child, if its parents were anxious that it should go.

Average daily attendance.

The next point which it will be convenient to consider is the average daily attendance of the children on the books of schools. The table below shows the per-centage rates in some detail, and though they are higher than is usual in England, I believe they are very near the truth, for this reason amongst others. The total number of scholars who were found and counted in the schools on the days on which the returns were made, was in Rochdale 9,053, in Bradford 9,069. The number returned as in average attendance is very nearly the same, being for Rochdale 8,927, for Bradford 9,110:—

		Per-centage of Average Daily Attendance.								
		Public.			Private.			Public and Private.		
		M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.
Rochdale	-	85·33	83·05	84·53	87·12	84·35	85·65	86·02	83·56	84·90
Bradford	-	81·99	78·16	80·27	82·94	82·28	82·60	82·36	79·98	81·24

It would appear, therefore, that in Rochdale a child on the average is absent from school something more than one-seventh, in Bradford more than one-sixth of his school time. Schoolmasters complain most bitterly of the irregularity and of the frivolous pretexts on which their scholars are detained at home. I cannot but feel, however, that some of this anger is misplaced. In poor families which can afford to hire no assistance occasions must constantly arise in which the assistance of the elder children is indispensable at home. When the washing or baking day comes round, the mother must put the younger children in charge of their elder brothers or sisters. It is this cause which makes the per-centages for the girls lower than for the boys.

Means to counteract irregularity.

But whether the irregularity be justifiable or not, hardly anything is done to counteract it. In no school had the practice of quarterly payments been introduced; only in one (the Borough West school, Bradford), as far as I know, had any other expedient been adopted for the encouragement of steady attendance. There prizes for attendance beyond 200 days had produced, I was assured, a good effect. In the great parochial school of Rochdale another plan is carried out. After the roll has been called, messengers are forthwith despatched to the homes of the children who are absent without leave, to inquire the reason why, and in case of repeated irregularities a child is dismissed from the school. But few masters would feel their position strong enough to allow such decided and effectual measures. Parents are very touchy, it is said, and would at once remove their children, if the discipline in this respect was made very stringent, to more accommodating

establishments. And but few schools have so complete a monopoly, or have such a hold on people's minds, as to be able to pursue a decided policy of their own, in disregard of the whims and caprices of their supporters.

In close connexion with the question of daily attendance is that of the number of days during which children attend at the same school in the year. An additional element, however, enters into this problem, the amount of change from one school to another. I am not able to state this in arithmetical terms, but it is very great, and forms one of the chief grievances of the schoolmasters. Except in the outlying parts of Rochdale there is at every point of my districts an abundant choice of schools accessible in point of distance. If a parent, therefore, is dissatisfied with the school at which his child may be, he has no difficulty in removing him to another. Very frequently this appears to be done on the most frivolous pretences, or even without any reason whatever, but I suspect that the main cause of the restlessness of parents in this matter arises from their inability to form a sound independent opinion of their child's progress. Half-time schools suffer from an additional cause of mobility in the custom which I have mentioned of each millowner fixing the school which the children whom he employs must attend. There is a perpetual migration from factory to factory, and each change of work usually involves a change of school. It is quite a common thing for a child to stay a week or a fortnight at a half-time school and then go off to another, and teachers have told me that they have re-admitted the same child as often as four times in a year.

Length of yearly attendance.

Tendency to change schools.

Aggravated by present half-time plan.

Under these conditions of daily attendance and of continuance at the same school it was found that the following was the yearly attendance of the existing scholars at the same school during the past year:—

—	No. of Scholars belonging to the Schools.	Per centage of Scholars who had attended during past Year at the same School.				
		Less than 50 Days.	50 and less than 100.	100 and less than 150.	150 and less than 200.	200 and upwards.*
Rochdale -	5,018	14·04	14·02	17·28	20·61	34·05
Bradford -	5,295	20·11	19·24	16·59	23·48	20·58

These numbers have some importance with reference to the question of the capitation grant, of which I shall speak hereafter in the proper place.

I can detect no general law regulating the proportions of average daily and yearly attendance in good and bad schools. The compulsory attendance of half-timers, who form so large a section of the whole number of scholars, disturbs all calculation. In many short-time schools steadily supported by a certain number

Comparative regularity of attendance in good and bad schools.

of factories, the number "belonging" or "attending" would hardly be affected at all by the grossest inefficiency. All I can say is, that in the very good schools the averages are high. No one, however, acquainted with the subject, seems to doubt that the action of a really good school on both parents and children is to encourage regularity.

To complete the statistical view of the extension of day school elementary education, two important questions remain to be considered; the age of the children at school, and the length of time during which they remain there.

Age of children
at school.

The first question will be fully elucidated by the Table on the next page, which I believe to be thoroughly trustworthy, as it was compiled from individual inquiry of every child whose age was taken.

Thirteen the
limit.

The age of 13, it will be observed, is practically the limit of school life in both districts. In Rochdale only 2·19 per cent. of males and 1·98 per cent. of females, in Bradford only 3·11 per cent. of males and 2·5 per cent. of females, exceed that age; and of these a large portion are half-timers, who are at school by compulsion, not having been able for some cause or another to get the surgical certificate authorizing them to work full time.

In other respects, however, the two places differ widely.

Many of the
Rochdale
children stay
late.

The Rochdale returns are remarkable for the large proportion which they exhibit of scholars in the later period of school life. Not less than 35·37 per cent. of the boys and 54·89 of the girls, are more than 10 years of age, and more children are at school between 12 and 13 than between 7 and 8. The cause of this is the very large number of half-timers, who constitute 60 per cent. of the scholars between 8 and 13 years of age. Another noticeable point is the evenness of the per-centages in all the years from 8 to 13. At first sight this might seem to show that the attendance was continuous, and that the older scholars had generally passed on regularly from the early to the later years. But this is not so. Upon that supposition there ought to be a considerable and steady decrease of the per-centages, as the children grow older. There are of course more children in existence at 8 than at 9, at 9 than at 10, and so on. Many too are taken off from school in each year to go to work, and for other reasons, yet the numbers instead of decreasing remain constant. This can only be by an equivalent number of new admissions, which may be either admissions for the first time or after an interval, balancing the losses. This fact, indicated by the table, I had abundant opportunity of observing personally. It was quite common in both places, more particularly amongst the short-timers, to find children of 10, 11, or 12 years of age, who had just come to school for the first time, or after an intermission of months or years. I shall give a further illustration of this when I come to speak of the operation of the half-time plan; it is enough for the present to indicate that the evil exists and to a very large extent. Late admissions and intermittent attendance, are the great drawbacks on the Rochdale schools. Early withdrawals are by

But many are
admitted late.

no means so common. The great bulk of the children do at one time or another go into the factories, and in that case the half-time plan keeps them late at school.

Bradford children leave much younger.

Bradford figures much less favourably than Rochdale in the table for two reasons:—The number of children who go to half-time is much less, and the number taken off young to other work is much greater. The boys' per-centages begin rapidly to decline between eight and nine, and this in spite of late admissions being exceedingly common.

Length of usual school period.

Under all these perplexing complications, of early withdrawals, late admissions, and intermittent attendance, I find it impossible to state with precision how long the children in either district "usually" stay at school. There seems to be no conventional standard accepted amongst parents, either of instruction to be acquired or of the length of time that ought to be spent at school. A child is taken away from school, not because he has been to school so long, or knows so much, but because he is old enough to work and can find employment. Hence, to determine the average period of school attendance would be a fallacy; it would simply imply that some children have more education and some less, and might mislead, by seeming to indicate that in this matter a general rule of conduct is recognized, while in fact no such rule exists.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

(But little more need be said respecting the statistics of Sunday schools than is contained in the accompanying table:—

	ROCHDALE.				BRADFORD.					
	No. of Schools.	No. of Departments.	M.	F.	Total.	No. of Schools.	No. of Departments.	M.	F.	Total.
Church of England	17	26	2,212	2,668	4,880	15	25	1,917	2,276	4,193
Wesleyan Methodists	15	16	1,376	1,689	3,065	15	18	2,025	2,210	4,235
New Connexion	2	2	178	210	388	1	1	86	108	194
United Methodists	—	—	—	—	—	2	3	147	165	312
United Free Churches	18	18	2,153	2,681	4,834	—	—	—	—	—
Associated Methodists	—	—	—	—	—	2	3	169	196	365
Wesleyan Reformers	—	—	—	—	—	7	8	877	1,028	1,905
Primitive Methodists	7	7	321	453	774	5	6	420	500	920
Modern do.	7	7	263	260	523	—	—	—	—	—
Independents	7	7	780	914	1,694	10	14	1,423	1,515	2,938
Baptists	9	9	1,094	1,213	2,307	9	10	1,284	1,490	2,774
Lady Huntingdon	3	5	440	492	932	—	—	—	—	—
Unitarians	2	2	145	131	276	1	1	34	38	72
Presbyterians	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	100	91	191
Moravians	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	59	64	123
Society of Friends	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	86	111	197
Plymouth Brethren	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	12	13	24
Other Denominations	2	2	233	283	516	5	5	286	350	636
Private Secular	3	3	98	3	101	—	—	—	—	—
	92	104	9,293	10,997	20,290	76	98	8,925	10,153	19,079

Sunday schools altogether religious.

It sufficiently shows that they are developed to an extraordinary degree, and that they are dependent almost entirely on religious communions. No other schools call out anything approaching to the zeal and general interest lavished upon these. With the

Dissenters generally they are far more popular than day schools, and absorb, I cannot but think, an amount of energy and attention disproportionate to their real value, great though it may be.

The number of teachers, who are all voluntary and supplied from every section of society, is immense (2,680 for Rochdale and 3,753 for Bradford), and teachers and scholars together amount in Rochdale to about a quarter, in Bradford to about a sixth of the entire population. The average attendance, however, is very low, reaching only 67·72 per cent. in Rochdale, and 66·17 per cent. in Bradford.

Proportion of scholars to population.

The most remarkable feature of the Sunday schools in my districts is the largeness of the number of adult scholars who attend them. Of the female scholars, not less than 29·88 per cent. at Rochdale, and 24·22 per cent. at Bradford, are above 15 years of age. I myself saw about two hundred young women present at one time in the large school of the United Free Methodists at Rochdale. Indeed it is quite a common thing for women to come to school after their marriage, and many teachers become scholars on the Sundays on which it is not their turn to teach.

Great number of adult scholars.

EVENING SCHOOLS.

It remains to speak of evening schools by way of completing the statistical account of the extension of education in my districts. The following table shows the most important numerical facts which I ascertained respecting them;—

Evening schools.

	No. of Schools.	No. of Scholars.			Per-centage of Scholars.		
		Total	M.	F.	In average Evening Attendance.	Who have never attended Day School.	Who have attended Day School 5 Years at least.
Rochdale -	49	1,825	1,082	743	64·82	2·85	40·98
Bradford -	58	2,599	1,555	1,044	63·24	6·34	37·38

The evening schools which I met with are of three kinds; those taught by the masters of private day schools, classes attached to Sunday schools, and classes connected with mechanics' institutes and literary institutions.

Evening schools of three kinds.

The first, which are by far the most numerous, have no kind of system or organization whatsoever. During the winter season the master opens a room three or more nights a week, and any one who chooses may become a pupil at a charge varying from 3*d.* to 6*d.* a week, or in some cases for a penny a night. The plan of teaching is mostly individual (except in reading, which is heard in classes), and its aim almost entirely confined to reading, writing, and arithmetic, writing on the whole being the favourite subject.

1. Private.

The Sunday school classes are held usually two nights a week in the winter season, one for males, another for females, with

2. Connected with Sunday schools.

in some cases an extra night for singing, and are conducted by voluntary teachers selected from the staff employed in the Sunday school. They are free to the Sunday scholars, and, like the private schools, give but little beyond elementary instruction.

3. Connected with mechanics' institutes, &c.

The same may be said generally of the classes connected with the mechanics' and literary institutes.

Indeed at Rochdale, with the exception of the Young Men's Christian Association, whose classes are neither frequented by nor strictly adapted for the ordinary working people, there are no public institutions which aim at supplying a secondary education. There are several small mechanics' institutes and mutual improvement societies, but beyond providing books, newspapers, and an occasional lecture, they do but little more than act as common evening schools.

Secondary education but little in request.

Bradford has been somewhat more active in this respect. Its large Mechanics' Institute, which possesses an excellent library of 7,000 volumes, maintains classes, in which, besides the ordinary routine of the day school, instruction may be had in chemistry, modern languages, drawing, &c. The Church Literary Institute, too, and some other smaller institutions offer some facilities for secondary instruction, but they are not largely made use of. Take, for example, the following list of the numbers in the classes of the Mechanics' Institute:—

History	-	-	-	-	9
Chemistry	-	-	-	-	19
Drawing	-	-	-	-	28
Geography	-	-	-	-	35
Reading	-	-	-	-	78
Grammar, elementary and advanced	-	-	-	-	128
Writing and Arithmetic	-	-	-	-	238

Secondary education, in fact, is at present not extensively demanded. The evening schools, which are the natural agencies for diffusing it, are almost entirely occupied in supplying the deficiency of primary education.

Evening schools unconnected with day schools.

Another noticeable fact respecting evening schools is, that they are completely dissociated from the public day schools. Only in two instances, in those of the Blue Pitts school, Rochdale, supported solely by Mr. Kay, and of the Factory school of Messrs. Walker and Co., in Bradford, did I find the day school and evening school in a real connexion. In no case has advantage been taken of the late Privy Council Minute; indeed its existence does not seem to be generally known. I shall return to this question when I come to speak of the condition and results of evening schools.

Difficulty in procuring teachers.

Very great difficulty is experienced in finding teachers for the evening classes of public institutions. Even for the elementary subjects there seems to be a great lack of persons who can be depended on to teach them satisfactorily. Voluntary teachers are found generally to be irregular and desultory, and the number of well-educated and competent people who would be willing to teach for pay exceedingly limited. For the higher instruction

there is an absolute dearth of professional teachers of the right stamp; and this is, no doubt, one of the principal causes of the very languid demand for anything beyond the rudiments of knowledge. It is idle to suppose that any one could treat such subjects as history, political economy, or natural science in such a way as to interest the more instructed artizans, unless he were a man of thoroughly good and liberal education himself.

Having now concluded the purely statistical part of the inquiry relating to the supply of educational means, and to the extent to which they are made use of, I will next proceed to consider the causes of the neglect which undoubtedly prevails amongst parents. How is it that children are not sent to school, as they might be, in greater numbers and for a longer time?

Causes of neglect of day school education.

It will be well to clear the way by showing the groundlessness of some theories which have been or may be suggested as solutions.

1. *It may be said, for example, that knowledge and learning are positively disliked or despised.*

Not due to contempt for knowledge.

Of this I could not find a trace. There is abundance of apathy and indifference as to the quantity and quality of the instruction provided for children, but I could hear of no contempt or dislike of mental accomplishments, and no mean jealousy of enlightenment. On the contrary, the notion that education is a good thing, and that parents ought in some sort to provide it for their children, is generally diffused, and has distinctly established itself in the public opinion of the working classes. Not a man whom you meet who does not make this profession, who would not explicitly recognize the obligation, and feel that its breach requires excuse. Unquestionably with many it is merely a verbal profession bearing but little fruit in act. Nevertheless the profession is something. The recognition of a duty is the first step to its fulfilment.

2. *Nor again does neglect arise from the belief that the ordinary course of instruction in the schools which are accessible is unsuitable.*

Not to dissatisfaction with the nature of the instruction.

Generally speaking there is little active demand for other intellectual teaching than reading, writing, and arithmetic, by the class of persons whose children frequent elementary schools. These acquirements are most valued; and are in fact most valuable, not only as the indispensable basis on which all other knowledge must be built up, but as direct means of advancement in the world. Promotion to an office or a warehouse is the most attainable object of ambition for the children of a working man in such places as Bradford and Rochdale, and for this nothing more is necessary, at any rate nothing more is demanded, than skill in writing and arithmetic.

There is no desire on the part of the working classes for what may be termed a professional education, that is, an education bearing specifically on the particular employments to which they are destined. Indeed there is but little scope for any scheme of the kind. Factory work, which constitutes the great staple of labour in these districts, is for the most part mechanical, and it

No desire for professional education.

would be difficult to imagine anything more pedantic than to attempt to prepare children for "doffing" and "piecing" in a factory by a previous course of verbal instruction on the natural history and properties of wool and cotton. Manual dexterity is what is required; and though the power of acquiring that may possibly be quickened by general intellectual cultivation, it certainly would be a hopeless thing to attempt to produce it by specific theoretical instruction.

Or for industrial training.

Neither is there a desire on the part of any class, high or low, for industrial training. I mean a mixture of actual work with teaching in the school. Such a plan would be ridiculously out of place in a district like Rochdale, in which the half-time system does combine work and instruction for a majority of the school children of working age, with far more effect and reality than could possibly be the case under any artificial scheme. Where the habits of the people are so thoroughly industrial as in the north of England,—where infant labour is in such great demand, and where parents are so eager, as the manufacturing population of Lancashire and Yorkshire are, to set their children early to work,—there could be no hope that parents would submit to their children playing at that which is now a reality paid for in hard cash.

The object should be rather to discourage excessive devotion to industrial pursuits, issuing as it does in the most lamentable sacrifice of children's higher interests for immediate material gain, than to give authority and sanction to the notion that work is as much the proper function of infancy as the training of the mental faculties, and moulding the moral character of the future man. It would be to reverse the principle of the half-time system "no labour without learning," and to substitute for it "no learning without labour."

Public school course not unpopular.

Reading, writing, and arithmetic are, as I have said, the chief things required. Hence there is never a complaint made that the course of instruction in public schools is too limited. Now and then, however, one hears of an objection being expressed to more discursive study. I have met with cases in which parents have been dissatisfied with the length of time devoted to religious instruction, on the ground that it trenched upon reading and writing; some regard geography and grammar as unnecessary; others object to drawing, particularly if it involves an additional payment. In nine cases out of ten, however, if the child makes good progress in the school, its parents are proud of its success, and in those schools, where it is the custom, willingly provide the necessary books and pay a higher fee, when those classes are reached in which the higher instruction is given.

Private school course in power

With respect to private schools, it is obvious that parents may dictate their own programme. The private schoolmasters are the humble servants of their patrons; they will include or omit anything which the public who support them may desire to be included or omitted: yet, on the whole, the course of teaching, though simpler in reality than that of public schools, is in pro-

fession very similar to it. In those schools which are in any way in competition with public schools, grammar and geography, for instance, are always professed, though but little attention is paid to them. Indeed, it is easy to see, in most of the private schools, some kind of direct imitation of the public school course and system; and though there can be no doubt that there are some parents who prefer them, particularly in the case of girls, owing to their more exclusive devotion to the elementary subjects, yet their general conformity to the public school programme is a sufficient proof that parents are not dissatisfied with it.

I feel quite convinced, therefore, that in my districts no children are kept from school because their parents cannot obtain the sort of education which they prefer. In public schools, all that they require is given, and the additional instruction, if not greatly valued, is at least not disliked. In private schools, which, at any rate in towns such as Rochdale and Bradford, would, if there were a demand, be multiplied to any extent, and assume any form which popular taste might require, the course of instruction is avowedly and necessarily conformed to the wishes or even the whims of parents. I mean by this simply that the general direction and channel in which education is directed is not distasteful to the people; I by no means imply that a belief that the education available in particular instances is only of an inferior quality does not operate to discourage them from seeking it.

3. *Nor, again, is jealousy of the religious influence exercised by the day school, or dislike of the particular forms under which religious teaching is conveyed, a cause of neglect.*

Neglect not due to dislike or dread of religious instruction.

The proofs of this are decisive.

There is, first, the unanimous testimony of schoolmasters and school managers, that remonstrances on this score are exceedingly rare—in fact, almost unknown; and though, considering the inability of the working people to help themselves, and their disposition to submit in such matters to what is regularly established by their superiors in rank, this might be insufficient to prove that they are altogether indifferent, it at least shows they have no very marked repugnance to the system which prevails. The people of the north are sufficiently independent to express the grievances which they feel; and though I place but little reliance on individual expressions of opinion, brought out in casual conversation, as indicative of a public sentiment, I may mention that, though I heard many working men speak on the subject, I never found one who expressed alarm lest his child's principles should be tampered with, and an irremediable sectarian bias given to his mind by the routine of religious instruction which he would have to pass through at school.

No remonstrances on this score.

The proofs of fact are more satisfactory.

If sectarian teaching were dreaded, one would have expected to find the British schools, whose first principle is to eschew it, more popular and crowded than others. They are in reality neither better nor worse attended than their neighbours. If the Church or Wesleyan catechism were disapproved, members of other

Schools patronized indiscriminately.

communions would either refuse to send children to schools where it was taught, or make special stipulations respecting the suspected formulary. On the contrary, in all schools (Church, Wesleyan, and British) children of all denominations are mixed up together. Roman Catholics and Wesleyans, Churchmen and Independents, Baptists and Indifferents, sit at the same desks, and submit without remonstrance or disapproval to the prescribed religious routine.

In many of the Church schools in my districts the majority of the children are of dissenting parents, and attend dissenting places of worship and Sunday schools, and in the Wesleyan and British schools, Church Sunday scholars are always found in fair numbers.

There are two excellent reasons why there should be little or no jealousy on the part of working people on this matter,—

First of all, the public schools are not as a matter of fact direct agencies of proselytism.

Undoubtedly in the establishment and maintenance of such schools, besides a general zeal for the diffusion of knowledge and morality, there is a particular design to strengthen and extend the influence of the church or congregation which supports them. It is hoped that habits of association and feelings of gratitude may ultimately bind the scholar to the communion which educated him; but direct methods to attain that end are very sparingly employed. In districts such as mine, where no religious community has it all its own way, and where all are jealously watched by rivals, it would be the worst possible policy to attempt direct propagandism; nor do I think that there is a desire to do so. Whatever may be the source of the feeling, whether the necessity of the position or liberality of sentiment, it appeared to me that amongst all the supporters of schools, whether church or dissenting, there is a desire to make them as comprehensive as possible, and to respect the conscientious scruples of parents on the rare occasions when they are manifested. Thus, amongst others, in the Parish Church schools both of Rochdale and Bradford, it is a rule laid down by the managers that no child shall be compelled to learn the Church catechism if his parents object, and it is easy to see in almost every Church school, even where the rule of uniformity is nominally maintained, that there is a disposition not to press it rigidly and pedantically, but to relax it, as far as is consistent with its general maintenance, when it is found to interfere with genuine religious scruples.

Secondly, the religious teaching which is given could not of itself have a direct proselytizing effect.

Something more than mere casual teaching of a formulary is necessary to make a real impression on a child's mind. Can any one seriously imagine that a boy under 12 years of age should contract a predisposition to distinctive Church or Wesleyan principles by a course of Historical Bible lessons, and a repetition, more or less mechanical, of the catechism of either communion? At any rate the working people have no apprehensions of the kind. If attendance at a day school

Reasons for the absence of jealousy.

1. Public schools are in fact unproselytizing.

2. They could not, on their present plan, proselytise if they would.

were necessarily followed by attendance at the church or chapel which supports it, there might be some ground for expecting that the scholars would grow up by force of habit in the communion with which they had been thus familiarised and systematically connected; but in my districts no attempt is made to interfere with the parent's free choice of a Sunday school and place of worship. Hence I could find but few indications of the feeling that the connexion of the schools with particular religious communions was felt by the working class of other communions as a grievance. Parents know perfectly well, as I have heard from them scores of times, not only that the course of instruction is in fact practically unsectarian; but that if it were not so, it would be powerless, standing alone, against the other religious influences which they could bring to bear upon the child.

I do not mean to imply that there is an absolute indifference to the religious profession of the day school. Other conditions being equal, given equal convenience and equal efficiency, and a Churchman or a Dissenter will naturally prefer the school attached to his own communion. I noticed particularly that this was the case amongst those pupils of the dissenting schools whose parents were of a somewhat higher social standing; the Sunday school and the day school mutually fed each other. The preference, however, when it is exhibited, is due to the influence of association, and a feeling of party duty, rather than to any deliberate opinion that the teaching of competing sects is pernicious in a religious sense.

Nor do I imply that there are not a few exceptional instances in which parents do feel the actual course of religious instruction a hardship. I found that some, whose children have never been baptized, naturally enough dislike them to repeat those portions of the Church catechism which assume that the answerer has been baptized.

Exceptional cases in which religious instruction is felt a hardship.

Some object to the Church Catechism generally, others to the sacramental sections only. I saw a letter from a man of this class at Bradford to the master of a Church school, asking if his child could consistently with the rules of the school be excused learning the catechism, as he did not agree with it himself, adding, with an expression of regret that Parliament had not established a really national system, that he must unwillingly submit if the regulation were inflexible.

Roman Catholics too, as might be expected, are *often* unwilling that their children should read the Protestant version of the Bible, and learn Protestant formularies, though many go through Protestant schools apparently without reluctance on the part of their friends, and certainly without remonstrance. In one instance I found in a Church school a boy, from a respectable position of society, whose parents, though staunch and decided Roman Catholics, were nevertheless willing not only that he should be educated at the school, but that he should act as a superior monitor or assistant. Had they thought that his faith would be endangered by contact with the school system he would certainly have never been brought into peril.

True causes of neglect.

What, then, are the true causes of the neglect of parents in this matter of the education of their children? Mainly, I believe, four,—poverty, indifference, and inaccessibility and inefficiency of schools.

I. Poverty.

I. Poverty.—Though in general the labouring people are highly prosperous in both districts, it is needless to say that in so large a population there must be some poverty of an abject kind. Sickness and accident, drunkenness and profligacy, are as rife in these districts as elsewhere; and bring with them their inevitable results of distress and want. In a huge town like Bradford, there are not a few families who, through misfortune or misconduct, are in a state of chronic destitution. A far larger class, though able to maintain themselves unassisted, can still barely maintain themselves. A not inconsiderable number of men in either place are doing only women's work, such as weaving, and receiving only women's wages. In Bradford there are still remaining not less than 1,000 woolcombers, whose wages have been reduced by the competition of machinery to about 8s. or 9s. a week. In addition there is constantly flowing in a stream of immigrants, ready to take away casual work that may offer, and living from hand to mouth on precarious earnings. The number of Irish in Bradford alone I heard variously estimated from 13,000 to 20,000. A migratory fluctuating population of this kind, having no permanent connexion with the place, and no old habitual relations with the employers of labour, lives necessarily in a very uncertain state. They are the makeshifts of the industrial system, useful and even necessary when trade is brisk, but the first to be discarded and dispensed with when the contraction comes; and as the fluctuations of business are perpetual, and work for people of this class in the same degree precarious, their average condition is not prosperous. At any rate, the unsteadiness of the circumstances under which they live is eminently unfavourable for the formation of those habits of prudent foresight, with which the desire of education seems most intimately connected.

Amongst these various classes there are not a few persons to whom the payment of the school fee for two or three children would be felt as a real burden. I do not say that very many are absolutely incapable of bearing it, if they were so minded, but that it would frequently involve a sacrifice of personal comfort, which it may be the duty of a parent to make, but which it cannot be expected in the actual state of opinion that he should make.

Public provision to bring education within reach of those too poor to pay for it.

To meet these cases of complete or partial incapacity on the part of parents to provide education for their children, there is in Rochdale hardly any organized public provision whatsoever.

Rochdale paupers not provided for by guardians.

The Poor Law guardians, having no general union workhouse, send such of the pauper children as they are compelled to take into the district workhouses to the general pauper schools at Swinton, near Manchester. No provision is made for the schooling of the out-door pauper children. This, however, is of the less consequence as the mass of them are absorbed at one time or another

into the factories. With reference to this subject, I obtained a return which would certainly show that a good many pauper parents find means to send their children to school out of their own resources, and that the proportion of pauper children at school is quite as high as that of any others.

ROCHDALE.

No. of Pauper Children between 6 and 13.	No. of Ditto at School.			No. at Ragged and Charity Schools.	Paid for by Private Persons.	Paid for by Pauper Parents.
	Total.	At Half Time.	At Day School.			
280	186	105	81	21	18	42

It was found also that besides the 105 in factories, 30 more of the children were at work; so that out of 280 children, 186 were at school, 30 at work, and 64 at home.

Nor are the free schools made use of to supply gratuitous education to those unable to pay for it. Two of them (Ogden and Hollingworth) are in remote districts, which without the endowment would hardly be able to support a school, but which do not seem in need of free instruction. In the rest, though the trustees may give preference or priority to such of the applicants as seem most needy, yet the recipients of the charity seemed on the whole to be the children of parents who might have provided education for them without assistance. This is certainly so in the Rochdale free English school, which has by far the largest resources of any.

The ragged school, which at the time of my visit had 40 scholars, does to some small extent provide instruction for the destitute, and amongst others to several pauper children. But to say nothing of the fact that it is intended rather to supply a remedy against the neglect of criminal and brutal parents than to assist mere poverty, an institution supported only by the bounty of one or two individuals and unaided by permanent funds or public subscriptions, can only be regarded as an accidental and temporary thing, and not as part of a calculated and permanent system.

In Bradford there is but one free school, a small "industrial school," so called, in which 60 girls are taught sewing and reading only. Besides this I believe that there are no foundations which either are or could be devoted to educational purposes.

The Poor Law guardians do, however, to a limited extent provide for the instruction of out-door pauper children. They have passed a resolution that they will put their powers of paying for schooling into effect, "so far as regards children (between the ages of 4 and 9), who are orphans, or who are fatherless or motherless, or who are deserted by either parent or by both;" and I was informed by the relieving officers in whose hands the administration of the order is mainly left, that not only is it enforced in the case of those to whom it strictly applies, but that it is construed liberally, and that permanent pauper parents, whose children do not fall expressly within its terms, are not

Free schools not confined to the very poor.

Ragged school.

In Bradford only one free school.

Guardians pay for out-door pauper children.

excluded from its benefits if they choose to ask for them. The following return relating to the pauper children for one week would seem to show that owing to this payment by the guardians, and to the great inducement which paupers have to get their children early into the mills, the proportion of children under instruction is much higher for the paupers than for the general population:—

BRADFORD.

Total No. of Pauper Children between 4 and 13.	At School.			
	Total.	Paid for by Guardians.	At Half Time.	At Ragged and other Schools.
312	264	108	47	109

Almost exactly one-half of the whole number of children, it will be observed, are at school by compulsion. A considerable number smuggle themselves into the ragged schools for the sake of the meal which is given daily, though the managers do not of course desire to take upon themselves a burden which the guardians are willing to bear.

Ragged schools. There remain the ragged schools, which provide instruction and food to about 370 children. Unquestionably the greater portion of these are very poor, and probably but very few of them would be at school at all if it were not for the ragged schools. But it must be remembered upon what conditions a respectable man sends his children to an institution of this kind. He must submit to let them associate with the sweepings of the street, with the children of the most depraved and vile of mankind. Consequently, as I was assured by one of the masters, many parents who stand urgently in need of the assistance of a charity school, will not make use of the ragged school; though it is equally true on the other hand, that there are numbers of people well able to pay for education who will smuggle in their children if they can.

Summary of
public provision
for gratuitous
education.

Such is an outline of the provision publicly made in either place for bringing education within the reach of those unable to pay for it.

In Rochdale it amounts to nothing more than the few free admissions which the trustees of three or four schools may give if they be so minded to poor persons. Poverty, as such, has no claim for help.

In Bradford the permanent pauper children are fairly cared for by the guardians; there is abundant room for the children of the criminal and degraded classes in the ragged schools; but no organized assistance is provided for honest poverty beyond the infinitesimal aid afforded by a sewing school for 60 girls.

Indifference
more widely
operative than
poverty.

II. Indifference is a much more extensive cause of neglect than poverty; indifference not verbally avowed, for all but the most degraded admit that education is good, but proved unmistakeably by practical neglect.

A moral principle can only be tested by the fruit which it bears, and in this point of view the numerical statement of the amount of educational neglect is eloquent. Hundreds of children are left to grow up most imperfectly instructed, who might be at school if their parents would take the trouble to send them, and exercise the self-denial which the payment of the school fee, and in some cases, the loss of the children's wages, would involve. On all sides, from ministers of every denomination,—from schoolmasters,—from employers,—from educated working men themselves,—from everyone, indeed, who mixes with the working people, one hears the same story, that education is ordinarily looked on as a matter of secondary importance, and made to give way to the convenience or interest of the moment without scruple or hesitation.

I have already said that here and there this indifference amounts to an absolute carelessness, and that a few children are left to grow up altogether without schooling. Many more would no doubt be in the same case, if it were not for the compulsion of the half-time plan, and the influence brought to bear on parents by benevolent persons who take an interest in the matter. But the indifference which has the widest operation is not absolute, but comparative, showing chiefly itself in a refusal, for the sake of schooling, to forego the wages which the child can earn, or the assistance which it can give in household affairs.

Neglect sometimes absolute.

More frequently education abridged that child may be sent to work.

Whatever be the motive, whether the selfish desire of profiting by their children's earnings, or an instinct that the early formation of industrial habits, is the vital acquisition for those destined to depend for subsistence on manual labour, it is certain that the ordinary rule with parents is to send them to work as soon as they can earn wages.

There seems, as I have said, to be no conventional standard, either of time to be spent at school or of accomplishments to be acquired there. The child is sent to work when opportunity offers, and in districts such as mine he has not long to wait.

Now, whatever moral blame may attach to parents for acting as they do, it is not difficult, I think, to account for their conduct.

Causes of parents' conduct.

In the first place, does education pay?

In this point of view I am afraid that the answer justifies their apathy rather than the professions of educational enthusiasts. There are no doubt a few occupations, that of an overlooker in a mill for example, for which writing and arithmetic are indispensable, but the amount required is small, indeed not more than is usually brought away from a National school, or may be easily acquired afterwards, if the prospect of promotion be held out. But posts of this description are not the rewards of education as such, but of dexterity, honesty, and industry. If a man have these, and just enough instruction to perform the duties of his place, higher accomplishments will be of no avail to him whatever. As to the common occupations which absorb the mass of operatives,—weaving and spinning, puddling and hammering, mining and delving, driving coal carts and the like,—I

1. Education does not manifestly pay.

In common occupations uneducated earn equal wages with educated.

could hear of no proof that the educated workman could either command a preference for employment, or earn higher wages than an uninstructed man. You are almost always told by employers that they prefer educated workpeople. I dare say they do, speaking generally of the mass. There is pretty unanimous testimony that the educated are much more pleasant to deal with, less bigoted, more flexible, more willing to adapt themselves to the changing circumstances of trade. But, man for man, the uneducated seem as valuable as the educated in a *commercial* sense; at any rate they earn as much money, and are engaged quite as readily, and without any questions asked, except as to their moral character and their skill.

Hence at the outset of life, a child's scholarship has in nine instances out of ten no influence upon its immediate capacity for earning wages. Nor do its prospects of future advancement depend visibly or palpably on the degree of instruction which it may have attained. The manufacturing districts abound with examples of men who have raised themselves from the working class to high position and fortune. Some of the wealthiest and most influential manufacturers in the north were in their youth nothing more than labourers working for weekly wages. How is it that they have succeeded in life? By exceptional educational advantages? By no manner of means. They owe their elevation simply to superior thrift, sagacity, and good fortune, not at all to the possession of wider intellectual accomplishments than those of their fellows.

Suppose a working man to be willing to make sacrifices in order to give his child a good start in life, and place him on a higher level than that on which he was born. He sends him to school steadily and continuously, till he is 13 or 14, and till the boy has gone through the whole of the national school curriculum. At the close what has his superior instruction opened to him? Possibly, by no means probably, an introduction to a warehouse or an office. A man is but little, if at all, better off as a clerk than as an artizan. If, however, on the other hand, he is compelled, as the vast majority must from the nature of the case be compelled, to take up with a handicraft, he will find that manual dexterity and regularity of moral conduct are the only saleable qualities, and that his intellectual attainments, beyond those of the most elementary character, will not add a penny a week to his earnings. I believe therefore, that in districts such as mine, where the demand for labour is urgent, and where there is abundance of work requiring little more than mere manual skill, the stimulus of private interest has but little power to induce the working people to aim at more than the mere rudiments of education. The difference between the prospects of the moderately and the well instructed man is not sufficiently marked and evident to make education be looked on as a good speculation.

In the second place it must be remarked, that, excluding this most important inducement of self-interest, there are but few secondary encouragements held out.

2. Hardly any secondary encouragements for education.

The possession of superior mental cultivation confers no privilege political, municipal, or social; nor, except to a very limited extent, does it receive any mark of public recognition.

Education confers no privilege.

In Rochdale, I believe, there is no honorary distinction attainable either by child or adult, in consideration of intellectual proficiency.

In Rochdale no opportunity for intellectual distinction.

In Bradford there is a little more scope for ambition.

In Bradford,—
1. Examination of Society of Arts.

First of all there are the examinations of the Society of Arts, in which members of the Mechanics' Institution may compete. These were going on during the time of my visit. Twenty-two candidates presented themselves, and I was informed by persons who took part in the affair, that considerable interest was excited in the classes of the institute, and that the candidates were most diligent in their preparation.

Secondly, certificates which testify on the authority of a Privy Council inspector that the holder is of a certain age, has been at the same school so many years, and has obtained a specified proficiency in certain subjects, have lately been introduced into two or three schools. At two or three other schools I was informed that parents had expressed a wish that they should be adopted into the school system. If they should become popular, they would have a singularly beneficial effect in checking two great evils, the early removal of children from school, and the capriciousness with which they are moved about from one instructor to another. It seemed, however, to be a general opinion that they will soon cease to excite any interest unless the employers of labour will make them of some value by giving a preference to the children who hold them.

2. Privy Council certificates.

Thirdly, the prize scheme of the West Yorkshire Northern Association offers pecuniary rewards and honorary certificates to the competition of a small section of the Bradford children. The scheme is very limited in its operation, being confined to the children of persons employed in coal and ironstone mines belonging to one or more of the members of the association. Nor does it appear hitherto to have been very successful. The report for 1858 says that the whole number of candidates for prizes was but 37, and that the attainments of the children who competed in the higher classes were not satisfactory. But though it may have been generally a failure, I was told that it had a very beneficial effect upon the Bierley school in the outskirts of the borough, which had already taken two prizes at the examination. Colliers from a distance, I was assured, had sent children to the school in order that they might be eligible in due time for the competition, while other parents not connected with mining, had shown much disappointment that their children were not admissible to the advantages offered. The scholars, too, who were preparing for the competition displayed increased diligence in the preparation of home lessons, and a very marked improvement in regularity of attendance. I called upon the father of two of the lads who had been successful last year, a collier who had never been to a school a day in his life, and who had not received any instruction whatsoever, except-

3. Prize scheme.

Not generally successful;

has good effect in particular instances.

Honorary distinctions would be useful.

ing the little which one of his boys had given him in the evening after work was done. It was pleasant to see the honest pride with which he spoke of the success of his boys at the examination. It was evidently the distinction, rather than the money value of the prizes, which had gratified him. The certificate itself, handsomely framed, formed the most conspicuous ornament in his cottage, and was manifestly looked on as the blue riband of the family. I mention this isolated case, not by any means to found on it an argument in favour of prize schemes, (indeed I have said that the particular one which gave rise to my remarks seems to be a failure on the whole,) but simply as indicative of the fact that the stimulus of honour, if rightly brought to bear, would have a powerful influence upon the best of the working class. The necessary obscurity of their life does not extinguish the natural desire of attested merit and recognized position; and no one, I think, can mix with them without coming to the conclusion that no greater encouragement could be given to education amongst the poor, than to annex to proved cultivation some privilege as a mark of public distinction, and a reward of a praiseworthy ambition.

Inaccessibility of schools.

III. The third cause which I have assigned for the neglect of education is the want of schools within easy distance.

It is quite true, as I have previously said, that there are but a very few spots in either district from which some public school is not accessible if trouble be taken. But this is not enough. "Education," as was remarked to me by a gentleman who has done more than perhaps anyone in my districts for its diffusion, "must be brought home to the people." Generally speaking, they will not go and seek it, unless it be brought before their eyes, and easily within their reach. On the other hand the mere proximity of a school is found to stimulate educational feeling. The establishment of a new school in a district imperfectly supplied never fails to increase the demand for instruction. Whether the demand shall become permanent or not, depends upon the efficiency of the school.

Badness of schools discourages desire of education.

IV. Lastly, the inefficiency of the schools which are accessible frequently discourages parents from seeking education.

Unquestionably with many, the "opus operatum" of education is enough. If they send their child to some school, their conscience is satisfied by the act, without inquiry into the quality of the instruction given. Still more are too uninstructed themselves to form a rational independent judgment of a child's progress. Speaking generally, however, the poor are keenly anxious that their children should be "got on," and like to see some visible sign of progress. Hence if the schools in the neighbourhood are really inefficient, and the scholars' time is found to be wasted, they either become restless and remove their children from school to school, or else, as frequently happens, they cease to take any interest in the matter, and the education of the neighbourhood languishes. No fact was better attested than this, that a good school quickens, and a bad school deadens, the desire for instruction within the range of its influence.

MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOLS.

The management of Church schools under Government inspection is practically confined to the clergyman with whose church they are connected. He is in all cases the superintending and generally the *sole* acting authority. The lay managers, *as a rule*, leave the whole guidance of affairs to him, and indeed, seem to regard the supervision of the schools as a strictly ecclesiastical function. Management of Church inspected schools;

The lay element of management in inspected schools belonging to dissenting congregations is more predominant, yet the personal visiting of the school, if done at all, is left for the most part to the minister. of Dissenting-inspected schools;

The few public schools which I met with not directly connected with a religious body are managed by a committee chosen from the subscribers; but their personal interference is ordinarily limited to an inspection and examination once a year. Generally some one person takes the chief burden of superintendence, and becomes practically the sole manager. Schools both church and dissenting may go on from one year's end to the other without being entered by a lay supporter. of uninspected schools.

In a word the schoolmaster is left entirely to himself to make or mar the school, excepting where it happens that there is an energetic clergyman or minister immediately connected with it. In that case there may be, and in some few instances within my districts there was, a sufficiently active and constant superintendence. The managers are managers so far as they serve as a corporation for conducting the financial and building business, and for electing and dismissing the master as occasion may require; but in the sense of directors of the system and supervisors of the daily working of the school, they are not managers at all. As an instance of the apathy which prevails, I may mention that the treasurer of a large school in Lancashire assured me that for two years he had been unable to get his accounts audited, and his report issued, because a quorum of the managers of the school could not be collected. An inefficient master may go on unchecked till he has ruined the school. When the mischief is done and the ruin complete, the managers wake up and elect a more competent teacher. I heard of one instance where a master carried on the business of a tea hawker concurrently with his own proper functions, and was allowed to remain till his school was seriously and permanently injured. Apathy of managers.

The consequence of this want of personal familiarity with the schools on the part of their supporters, is disastrous in many ways. Consequence of managers' neglect:—

1. It issues in a most extraordinary ignorance of their actual condition, of their wants, and of the results which they are producing. 1. General ignorance of state of education.

A number of gentlemen combine to build a school; subscribe annually for its maintenance; the minister superintends, or is supposed to superintend; the Government inspector periodically examines it. All is assumed to go on well, and I have been constantly startled by the confident way in which some real friends of education have spoken of very indifferent schools which

they support, as quite sufficient and indeed meritorious. It is this want of knowledge, I believe, which is the explanation of the languid interest which education excites in the public generally.

2. Bad effect on schoolmasters.

2. The neglect of managers has very prejudicial effects on the schoolmasters themselves.

Many of them, conscientious men striving to do their duty, complain that they are left to struggle with the difficulties of their position without support, and that their services meet with but little direct recognition. It is difficult indeed to imagine a more depressing situation than that of a schoolmaster of this kind, left to fight alone with the ignorance of the children, the varying whims and caprices of parents, and the difficulty of insufficient apparatus and assistance. If, on the other hand, the motives of high moral principle and of natural activity are not present, the schoolmaster is too apt to fall into slothful and slovenly habits of discipline and teaching. Scarcely in a single school did I find indications of that cardinal virtue of a schoolmaster—untiring, unceasing, remorseless energy which tolerates no waste of time or remissness of attention. There may be a few spirits to whom this temper of mind is natural and habitual, but ordinary men,—and schoolmasters are but ordinary men,—are not gifted with so tough a fibre of resolution. There is scarcely a position in which it is at once more difficult and more necessary to maintain a constant vivacity of mind and promptness of attention, than amongst the depressing influences of the never ending still beginning work of an elementary school. The greater reason that the natural tendency to succumb to a continually recurring and wearying opposition should be counteracted by the stimulus to activity, which consists in the knowledge that activity is expected, and that its absence will be marked. At present the inspector's visit is in many schools the only thing which the master has to dread; and if the report be tolerable, and a tolerable report is quite compatible with a somewhat sleepy school, he has but little cause to fear in the present temper of school managers. They have not yet realized the truth that a tolerable school is a nuisance, and "not to be tolerated."

3. Distrust of schools by the poor.

3. The neglect of duty by school managers is followed by a corresponding distrust of the schools on the part of the working class.

Public schools, as such, are, I believe, generally preferred to private schools for children beyond the age of infancy; yet I was constantly told by working men that in the public schools but little regard is paid to the scholars' advancement, and little interest taken in their improvement. The poor have very frequently not sufficient education themselves to form an independent judgment. They are disposed too, in this as in most other matters, to follow the lead of their superiors in rank, and seeing that the professed friends of the public schools will not take the trouble to superintend and govern them, they are not unnaturally inclined to conclude that institutions which excite so little interest are not deserving of much confidence. They very reasonably desire some guarantee for the efficiency of that over which they have themselves no control, and it is the absence of that external guarantee

which is to a great extent the cause of the disposition to run about from one school to another, which constitutes one of the most formidable obstacles to the success of education.

EXTENT OF GOVERNMENT SYSTEM

The comparative extent of the voluntary and the Privy Council systems in the public schools standing within my two districts will appear by the annexed tables.

	ROCHDALE.		BRADFORD.	
	Number of Schools.	Inspected Schools.	Number of Schools.	Inspected Schools.
Church of England	25	14	25	24
Wesleyan - -	3	2	8	3
Independent - -	1	-	7	4
Baptist - - -	1	-	1	-
Others - - -	11	2	8	2 (Workhouse Schools.)
Total - -	41	18	49	33

In both places a large majority of the schools are either under the Government system, or supported by friends of the system. The Church of England and the Wesleyans are unanimous in its favour, and at Bradford one considerable section of the Independent body has also cordially adopted it. Government system largely predominant.

Voluntaryism is very decidedly in the minority. Still it does exist as a strongly pronounced principle in certain classes, chiefly amongst the Baptists, and a portion of the Independents. Its results, however, are rather negative in repelling its adherents from joining the advocates of the contrary theory in educational efforts, than active in setting on foot any independent projects. Voluntaryism declining. Its influence negative.

Undoubtedly, there are individuals holding "voluntary" principles who are liberal supporters of education; but the united action of the party is comparatively limited, as an analysis of the schools in either place will show.

In Rochdale, out of the 41 public schools, 18 are actually under inspection, and 5 having endowments (Littleborough, Ogden, Hollingworth, Rochdale Free English, and Toad Lane) may be regarded as neutral. Of the 18 remaining, 8 are Church of England schools, of which 1 is in negotiation with the Committee of Council, 2 are supported by the contributions of Church people friendly to the Government system, and 5 are parochial schools whose patrons will put them under inspection as soon as they can fulfil the preliminary conditions. Of the 10 that are left, 1 is a ragged school, supported by a single family; 3 (Milkstone, Buckley, and Fieldhouse) depend upon individual supporters,

(Messrs. Hoyle and Booth, Schofield and Bright, of whom the first, Messrs. Hoyle and Booth, are desirous of inspection,) and 2, Irwell Terrace Baptist infant school and the Shawforth Wesleyan school, have no assistance beyond the free use of a school-room. There remain 5 only which may be said to be supported by the advocates of voluntarism as a party, the two British schools in Rochdale, the Ilall Fold school (which is connected, however, with an Independent congregation,) and the British school at Milnrow, which, when it receives any assistance at all, is indebted almost entirely to a single subscriber.

In Bradford, it will be noticed that the whole of the Church schools, with one exception, a charity school, are inspected. The old Wesleyans are warm friends of the Government system, and intend, as soon as they can do so, to put their uninspected schools under its operation. The Independent congregation of Horton Lane has four out of its five schools inspected. The Baptist school, which is perhaps not a public school at all, receives no other aid than the use of a Sunday school-room. Eliminate, in addition to these, the ragged schools, maintained by persons of all shades of opinion, and there remain only the two College Chapel schools, supported directly by the friends of the voluntary system upon distinct principles of voluntarism. The small subscription to these is the only united educational effort by which the opponents of State interference at present illustrate their principles.

I mention these facts for the present, as indicative of the extent to which the objection to a state system is diffused. If there were a deeply felt and widely spread opinion that the Government scheme is wrong in principle and pernicious in practice, it might be expected that its opponents would, as a body, do something to show that it is both unnecessary and inexpedient. The truth is, that the numbers who hold this opinion are comparatively few, and rapidly diminishing. I could not hear of a single Churchman or Wesleyan who entertained it, and many of the Independents are decided partisans of the contrary theory. I think, too, it may be fairly said that its adherents, as a body, are not distinguished for any particular zeal. Compare, for instance, the amount of educational work done in Bradford by the Church of England and the Baptists. The Baptists, who hold almost universally the voluntary view, are a very large, influential, and wealthy society, yet they do as a body nothing, beyond lending a school-room to a private master, towards the day-school education of the place. The Church of England, on the contrary, maintains, with Government aid, no less than 25 schools, educating nearly 4,000 scholars. Voluntarism is, in truth, dead; it originates nothing, and it maintains what exists without liberality or spirit. Its whole force is thrown into the College Chapel schools at Bradford, and the British schools in Rochdale. How does it support them? At Bradford, a single man is left to deal, unassisted, with 218 scholars; at Rochdale, the master has to struggle with no less than 306 children, with no help excepting from monitors! If the opinion were much more than a mere logical abstract theory, it

would embody itself in a more striking form, and make its protest against false doctrine more emphatic than its present feeble display. As far as the wealthier classes are concerned, therefore, there can be no doubt, I think, that the objection on principle to State interference is a purely negative influence. It has no positive side. It prevents persons who hold it from co-operating with their neighbours who take the opposite view, but it does nothing, or next to nothing, by its own independent action.

As to the working class themselves, I believe that those who think at all on the subject are decidedly favourable to a National system. I never met with an intelligent working man, and I talked with several on the subject, who did not take this view. Some advocate the opinion from higher principles, some from the simply commercial point of view that as they pay taxes to the State, the State ought, by way of return, to provide them with cheap education for their children. The subject was much discussed amongst them, I was given to understand, some few years ago, and though all varieties of view were taken, the prevailing sentiment was in favour of a national scheme. I was informed by the vicar of Bradford that in 1849, when he was anxious to introduce the Privy Council system into his parish, he held several public meetings in order to explain its operation. The subject excited considerable discussion, and a very strenuous opposition was given by the adherents of the voluntary system, then much more powerful than they are now. The result was a decided triumph at the meetings for the partisans of the Government plan, owing in no slight degree to the steady support of the Chartists, a very unexpected body of allies. The same feeling, I have no doubt, still exists amongst the class of workmen, by no means a small class, who, though not Chartists, take an interest in politics, and who speculate upon the social and moral advancement of their order. There are, of course, a far greater number of persons in this rank of life who acquiesce passively in the existing state of things, whatever it may be, without thought or theory on the question.

There is, therefore, a general predilection in favour of a State and National system.

The particular form which State aid and interference at present assumes in England is also, I am bound to say, highly popular with the middle classes. It is at once religious and denominational, and the great majority of the promoters of schools in my districts profess the opinion that religious instruction is the essential basis of education, and are glad at the same time of the opportunity to use the day school, supported by public money, as an instrument for extending the influence of their own religious communion.

It must be observed also that the present plan offers extraordinary advantages to districts such as mine.

The effect of the Factory Acts is practically to throw on the manufacturers the obligation in the last resort of supplying education for the children whom they employ. They cannot carry on their business without children, and the law says, that they shall

Working class favourable to a national system

Popularity of present Government system with middle class.

Present plan very favourable to manufacturing districts.

Public schools a relief to manufacturers of a possible burden.

not have children without education. Unless, therefore, there be a school already existing near the mill, the owner must himself provide one. Consequently the establishment of a public school in a manufacturing town, still more in a village, is a direct relief to the manufacturers of a possible personal burden. This consideration has its weight, though undoubtedly not so much weight as it ought to have, in stimulating the desire to establish public schools in the first instance. I heard of more than one instance where a factory master, on the verge of spending money in setting up a small school for the single purpose of giving certificates to his short-timers, was induced to make a considerable donation to enable the clergyman to get a grant from the Privy Council to establish a national school for the general good.

Schools very nearly self-supporting.

When, by the aid of the very liberal building grants of the Privy Council, the school is fairly started, the capitation grants, added to the large sum received in school pence, render its maintenance very inexpensive indeed.

At Rochdale the magnificent parochial school is absolutely self-supporting. The master pays the whole expenses, and takes what is left of his receipts.

At Bradford the whole subscription to the 7 schools connected with the parish church, which provides ecclesiastically for 70,000 people, amounts to less than 100*l.* a year, and though this is certainly insufficient and even disgracefully small, yet the schools do manage to go on. Indeed in no part of England are the pecuniary advantages of the present scheme so palpable as in manufacturing places. Let a public school once be set going, and the number of scholars is so large, the fees so high, and the capitation grant in half-time schools so liberal, that the amount of contributions required to maintain it is altogether contemptible in comparison with the ability to contribute of the wealthier classes in the neighbourhood.

Building grants encourage establishment of schools.

There can be no doubt whatever that in my districts the building grant, and the promoters of further annual grants in support, has encouraged and does largely encourage the original establishment of schools. The promoters of many schools assured me that, without that aid and that prospect, they should have shrunk altogether from the attempt to set them on foot.

Doubtful effect of central aid on annual contributions.

The effect of central aid upon annual contributions for the maintenance of schools is more doubtful. It is quite impossible in districts like mine to discover the amount of voluntary donations to schools even for the current year, much less for a series of past years. In a great many instances no records exist which might serve as an authority; in the next place, congregational collections for united purposes of day and Sunday schools are common in aid of or substitution for subscriptions, and it is impossible to disentangle the share allotted to each. It is by no means unusual, too, for a school to go on getting year after year into debt, and be finally cleared by one or two liberal friends, who give the neces-

sary money privately and quietly, without any account being kept or remembered.

On the whole, though there is a great difference of opinion between school managers on the question, the more general view seemed to be that in so far as a particular school is known to be assisted by public money, it is felt to have a less strong claim on private support than if it were not so assisted. So far private liberality is checked. But it is equally true that, inasmuch as the Government plan has greatly increased the number of schools in actual existence, each of which when set on foot has specific claims on the bounty of neighbours who previously had no call made on them, the aggregate amount of subscriptions has been largely raised through its influence.

Having said so much on the extent to which the Government plan is actually carried, of the estimation in which it is generally held, and of the effects on private effort which it produces, I proceed to its administration, first with reference to the aid it gives; secondly, with reference to the condition of inspection which it exacts.

I may say, generally, that I heard hardly any complaints respecting the administration of the system. School managers almost universally allow that there is no irritating interference with their independent conduct of their schools. One case only came under my notice in which the Committee of Council had forced any change of system on the school authorities. The parochial school at Rochdale, as at present managed, provides no instruction in sewing to the girls on its books. With its present number of 700 scholars, and its present buildings, it would be quite impracticable to do so, without breaking up its organization, and destroying its efficiency. The Committee of Council have now required, upon pain of withdrawal of their grants, that sewing be introduced, a decision which, under the circumstances of the case, will have the effect of excluding girls altogether. As is well known, the school is of the highest merit, and the managers were naturally reluctant to deprive the girls, who might frequent it, of the great advantages of intellectual training which it offers, but have been compelled to yield their private judgment, right or wrong, upon the matter.

The building grants are almost universally acknowledged to be very liberal. In my districts they render all excuses about the impossibility of erecting good schools absolutely futile. The town of Bradford lies so much together, that the sympathies of the public spirited and charitable may be presumed to extend to the whole, and not to be localized to particular geographical sections. A general contribution from all who could give one, sufficient to supply the borough amply with permanent educational machinery, would be as nothing in comparison with the wealth connected with the borough. Rochdale is more scattered; but even there there is not a single spot, where a public school is necessary, in which the wealth of the proprietors or employers is not abundantly sufficient to establish one. If a school could not be built, at any

Administration
of Government
system.

Generally
popular.

Building grants
enable schools
to be established
in all parts of
districts.

rate a room of some kind might be taken, and brought within the conditions necessary for obtaining Government assistance, as in fact done very successfully by the Rev. R. K. Cooke at Hamer.

Augmentation grant.

Effect on uncertificated and private masters.

Without expressing any opinion as to the effect of the augmentation grant on the efficiency of the teachers who enjoy it, I may mention that the knowledge of the advantages which a certificate brings with it exercises a very great influence upon those public schoolmasters who are at present uncertificated. A majority of those whom I met with appeared to have the intention of sitting for one at some time or another. It is not only the additional income which they desire, but also the assistance of pupil-teachers to lighten the school labour. Several masters, at present teaching large schools unassisted, assured me that they could not long submit to the excessive fatigue which they endured.

Even amongst private schoolmasters I found many who were anxious, if possible, to bring themselves within the Government scheme. I was constantly questioned by them as to the steps which they should take for qualifying themselves to be admitted for the certificate examination; and I found one poor and most deserving woman teaching a dame school, who was taking lessons in arithmetic and other subjects, in the vague hope that by so doing she might be able some day to teach a "Government school."

Difficulty in procuring masters for uninspected schools.

I can well suppose, therefore, that it would not be easy to find a competent master for an unassisted public school. Even supposing, what very seldom is the case, that the school committee could guarantee as large a salary as would be provided if the school were assisted, the help which the pupil-teacher system offers would still be wanting. I was informed as a matter of fact by a gentleman at Bradford, who was engaged in setting on foot a voluntary school, that though the committee had offered to guarantee to a man and his wife a salary of 100*l.* a year with a house, yet this was not found a sufficient inducement for the kind of master whom they required.

Grants to pupil-teachers.

Two widely different opinions are afloat respecting the expenditure on pupil-teachers. Many of the enemies of the Government plan have the notion that the money is lavishly spent in giving a gratuitous education to some favoured persons, and that the apprentices, on the expiration of their term, are in the habit of abandoning the business to which they have been destined, and of advancing themselves in life by means of the superior instruction with which the State has provided them for educational purposes. On the other hand school managers and masters find that the prospects held out to pupil-teachers are barely sufficient to enable them to keep up the supply. In some of the more successful schools, there is a fair sufficiency of candidates, but generally speaking, there is no competition or eagerness for the post, and the result is that, the field of choice being narrow, inferior material has to be put up with. Parents cannot be induced to forego the immediate five or six shillings a week, which a child of 13 may

Not too great.

Supply insufficient.

earn, for a small contingent stipend of 10*l.* paid after a year's delay. Girls, however, are procurable with less difficulty than boys, and, as is eminently desirable, from a somewhat higher grade of society than that of the average of the scholars amongst whom they are thrown.

I can offer no general opinion as to the tendency which pupil-teachers are alleged to have, to forsake the profession to which they are brought up. It is not so as a matter of fact in my districts. Almost all of those who have arrived at the expiration of their term, have gone on with school-teaching as their business in life, and of those at present under apprenticeship, I found only one whose intention was to adopt some other calling when he became free.

Pupil-teachers stick to their profession.

In those schools which enjoy it the *capitation grant* is highly popular; as in half-time districts it may well be. A half-time school has two advantages in this respect. With the same equipments it may take a double number of scholars and earn a double allowance, the half day's attendance of a half-timer being for this purpose considered a full day. There is besides the great advantage of compulsory regularity. Accordingly I heard no opinion that the capitation period of 176 days was too long. It would appear, from the per-centages of the table of attendance already given, that not less than 44 per cent. of the public school children in Rochdale, and 32 per cent. in Bradford, may be assumed to attend the 176 days yearly, and in the good schools where pains are taken to ensure regularity, the proportion is decidedly greater. There is absolutely no ground therefore for complaint on this score. There is nothing in the nature of the prevailing employments, in the accessibility of the schools, or in any other way to prevent attendance during the required time.

Capitation grant.

Period of 176 days not too much.

Nor again is there any just ground of prospective dissatisfaction in my districts respecting the conditions upon which the capitation grant is attainable. I have already said that no part of either Rochdale or Bradford, in which a public school is needed, is unable, if the wealthier classes were so minded, to adopt the Government scheme in its entirety. Any new school which may be established therefore may conform to the regulations now in force.

Easily obtainable in schools to be hereafter established.

The case of the existing schools not at present qualified for the grant is somewhat different. I saw several, both inspected and uninspected, sufficiently efficient to deserve the grant if efficiency were the only test. Most of the latter would very gladly submit to inspection for the single purpose of getting the capitation money, so long as they were certified to deserve it. It certainly does seem hard that these schools, which as far as the country at large is concerned, are as meritorious as any other, should have all public aid denied, except on the condition of dismissing their tried and competent masters. That a master has not, or cannot, come up to a certain literary standard may be an excellent reason why he should not have the advanced education of pupil-teachers in his hands, but it does not seem a very strong one for refusing to

Case of uninspected schools under uncertificated masters.

give him the means of teaching better the scholars whom he has proved that he can teach well.

Inspection.

It remains to speak of the condition of inspection, without which no Government assistance is procurable. I heard but one opinion as to the beneficial effect which it produces. School managers universally spoke of it not only without jealousy, but with the warmest approval. As I have said, scarcely any of them, except he be a clergyman, takes any practical part in the conduct of the schools. They are naturally anxious, therefore, to have some means of testing now and then their actual condition, and this opportunity the inspector's visit affords. One or more of the lay managers is, I believe, usually present during a portion of the examination, at least it was so in most of the six or seven inspections which I witnessed, and it is from what is then observed, from the conversation and report of the inspector, that an estimate of the state of things is formed. Stock is taken of the school, so to speak, once a year, and in the absence of a more continuous supervision that is, and is felt to be, a great advantage.

It is needless to speak of its beneficial influence upon school-masters and pupil-teachers. It acts upon them as a perpetual stimulus, and it is easy to see that in most cases it is steadily kept in view in the working of the school.

I may mention here, that in addition to the Government inspection the British and Wesleyan schools are occasionally examined by their own inspectors. Not much importance seems to be attached to these visits. They are felt to be valuable, I was told, in the way of offering suggestions as to modes of teaching and management, and are consequently received with welcome, but the absence of authority places them on such a different footing with the Government inspection, that they neither clash with it nor could be substituted for it.

FINANCE.

Finance.

I come next to the finance of schools. I have already said that when Government schools are once established the scholars' pence and the Government allowances are sufficient to maintain them with very little extraneous assistance. The schools are large, and the fees higher than would be the case in most districts, as may be seen from the statement below :—

Fees high.

	Per-centage of Scholars paying Weekly.						
	1d.	2d.	3d.	4d.	5d.	6d.	More than 6d.
Rochdale - - -	8·10	67·13	12·36	10·42	-	1·45	·54
Bradford - - -	7·24	52·73	16·86	19·29	-	3·83	·05

It must be remembered that as these figures include the half-timers, who may be taken with the same equipments in double

numbers, the price of education is a good deal higher than would appear from the table. A popular school, therefore, becomes very nearly, if not quite, self-supporting. Such deficiency as there may be is made up by private contributions, or by collections in the church or chapel to which the school is attached, and no school I believe which I met with was in debt to any serious extent.

There is no superfluity of expense lavished on any school in my districts. If it be on the Government plan, no more money is raised than is necessary to meet the Government requirements. No additional teachers are supplied by its private patrons. Thus, though good evening schools are urgently required, I did not find a single instance where the managers had engaged an assistant master to enable them to take advantage of the late minute. Their ideal does not seem to be more comprehensive than the minimum of the Government scheme.

Not more than necessary expenditure incurred.

It is precisely the same with voluntary uninspected schools. A school-room and a master are provided, and that is all. It does not seem to enter the heads of the subscribers, that more teaching power than that of a single master is required for 150 or 200 scholars.

In truth, the burden of supporting the day schools falls upon a comparatively small number of individuals. The public at large do not take their fair share, partly, I believe, because they are not very urgently pressed to contribute, and partly because they know little or nothing about the subject. I was repeatedly told by clergymen, that they had nothing to do when they wanted money but to apply to Mr. A. B., who was always ready to give what was required, but in no single instance did I gather from them that the general public were forward to contribute. The Sunday schools are universally and generously supported, but the day schools are left to a very select body of patrons.

Schools for the most part dependent on few individuals.

Great individual liberality is shown in the cause. I could mention a list of gentlemen, (Messrs. Kay, Bright, Chadwick, and Ashworth, at Rochdale, for example; and Messrs. Wood, Walker, and Co., Ripley, and Taylor, at Bradford,) who either maintain schools at their own expense or munificently support others of a more public nature. And, if the general public is more backward than might have been hoped, it is in a great measure due to the fact that the case is not put before it with sufficient urgency, and by the right person. Such men as the Rev. R. Cooke, of Smallbridge, can in an unpromising locality raise a really immense sum of money for schools and churches. If a clergyman be respected and an earnest beggar, I see no reason to doubt that in every part of my districts he could collect enough and to spare for its education. But he must ask and ask again before the money will be forthcoming.

The whole question of school fees may be stated in a word. Parents will accept gratuitous education, but they do not value it. The school fee is usually paid without reluctance, indeed with cheerfulness, if the return is supposed to be adequate. Over and

School fees. Gratuitous education not valued.

over again have I heard of persons offering to schoolmasters to pay more than the sum demanded, if additional attention could be thereby secured for the child's progress. In the absence of a better test, the amount charged for instruction is frequently taken as an indication of its value. On no other principle can I account for the existence of very poor private schools by the side of good public ones. The north country people are of a decidedly commercial turn; they want money's worth for their money, but they do not expect it without money. Accordingly I found that it was quite a common thing if a child missed school on Monday and Tuesday, for his parents to keep him away all the rest of the week. It would not be worth while, they think, to pay 4*d.* for 3*d.* worth of teaching. On the other hand there seems to be no great eagerness amongst the respectable working men to get their children into free schools, even when, like the Rochdale Free English School, they are efficiently conducted. At the same time nothing is more common than to find parents removing their children from cheap schools to others, whose charge is 6*d.* or 8*d.* a week, in the hope,—often the vain hope,—that they will be “got on” with proportionate speed. And in the few public schools which had tried it in my districts, the plan of charging a higher fee for a slight additional attention and higher instruction was found to be popular.

Masters and managers opposed to gratuitous teaching.

I did not meet with a single master or manager who was not decidedly opposed to gratuitous teaching. They bore united testimony to the fact, that it induced carelessness and irregularity of attendance, and some undoubtedly spoke from experience of its evils. There is so little of it, however, in my districts, that I could not form any independent opinion of its actual results, though from what I heard I could not doubt that, largely extended, it would be mischievous amongst a population so well to do, and so independent as that of the northern manufacturing districts.

Nevertheless, there is a want of some public fund, administered under proper guarantees, for bringing education within the reach of the destitute and unprotected classes, who, at present, cannot obtain it for their children without a painful sacrifice, or by allowing them to mix with the thieves and vagrants of the ragged school.

Having now discussed the demand and supply of education, together with the government and management of the existing schools, I proceed in the next place to speak of the more direct agencies by and through which instruction is carried on;—schoolmasters and school buildings and apparatus.

SCHOOLMASTERS.

Trained masters.

1. The public school masters and mistresses who had been trained left, on the whole, a very favourable impression on my mind. So far as intellectual attainments are concerned, I have no doubt that they are fully competent to instruct in the established and recognized curriculum. The conversation of some showed them

to be highly intelligent and liberally instructed, and from what I could hear, I should say that the general average amongst them of moral principle and of industry is high. I can speak personally with gratitude of their great courtesy and desire to oblige at the expense frequently of a good deal of labour and trouble.

I should be reluctant from my limited experience to speak of the precise effect which the present system of training has had upon them. It certainly has not had, in the instances which came under my notice, the result often attributed to it of making them too ambitious in their style of teaching. Master after master has assured me that he would willingly sacrifice grammar and history altogether if it were not for the inspection. Nor did I see in a single one of their schools any indication of quackery, no flourishing of copybooks, or parade of setting down elaborate sums far beyond the scholars' power, for the astonishment of parents.

I should be inclined, however, to suspect that they have not been sufficiently instructed in the art of their profession: at any rate they do not seem to attach sufficient importance to it.

The organization of schools is hardly ever as complete and definite as is necessary for the due working of the pupil-teacher system, and the methods of teaching some of the common subjects frequently most ineffectual and stupid.

The way in which pupil-teachers are permitted to teach reading to the lower classes, for example, is positively imbecile, and though I believe, from what I could gather, that they are fairly dealt with by the masters in other respects, they get in general very little technical instruction in teaching itself. Two or three masters expressly told me that during the whole of their apprenticeship they had been completely neglected in this respect.

With regard to pupil-teachers, the boys struck me as not very promising material. The masters complain of the great difficulty which they have in obtaining those whom they would like best, clever boys from a somewhat higher grade in society than the average of the scholars in public schools. The girls are far superior, both in manner and in the art of teaching a class. Some of them gave some quite admirable lessons in my hearing, and both boys and girls, if properly managed, are incomparably superior to monitors.

With respect to the masters of public uninspected schools, the majority had been trained though not certificated. Indeed, there seems a general impression amongst the supporters of schools that the training school course is highly beneficial.

2. The *private teachers* are much less highly educated than the public; generally speaking, they seemed very ordinary persons, and to have been recruited from very various sources. I found but one master (a well educated man, who was a member of the College of Preceptors) who held a certificate of competency from any public institution, and but one mistress who had been to a training institution.

Hardly any, except those who were suffering from some bodily infirmity, were brought up to the business. The number of cripples

Effect of training.

Technical knowledge deficient.

Pupil teachers.

Private masters.

Rarely trained for the profession.

amongst them is very large indeed. In Bradford I called without design on five masters successively, all more or less deformed, one who taught in a cellar dwelling, paralytic, as well as horribly distorted. With the exception of these men, who seem to have taken to teaching chiefly because they were disabled for other employments, nearly all the schoolmasters have previously been engaged in some other calling. Several whom I met with were broken-down tradesmen, a good many had been weavers, and the rest had for the most part been handicraftsmen of various kinds. At the same time I found only three who followed any other business concurrently with teaching, a stationer, a druggist, and a clock cleaner.

Dames very
uninstructed.

The dames seemed for the most part to be very little more instructed than the average of the class to which they belonged. Many, by the reluctance which they exhibited to taking the pen in hand, when asked to sign the returns, showed pretty clearly that they could not write.

Other masters
and mistresses
only imperfectly
instructed.

The masters and mistresses of the next class of private elementary schools, though differing very much in intellectual qualifications, struck me, with few exceptions, as too imperfectly instructed themselves to carry on the education of children of an advanced age with anything like the success attained in a good public school under a trained master. For example, on three occasions I found copies written by the master on the black board misspelt, and some illustrations of grammar which I heard given were grotesque enough.

The private masters have no notion of developing the powers of the children as well as of teaching them specific information. Indeed the desultory individual method usually adopted leaves but little scope for any attempt of the kind. I have no doubt, however, that their schools are improving. In some, the rudiments of system and organization are observable, and a few of the younger masters, who have themselves been to public schools, are beginning to introduce improved methods, such as a due mixture of simultaneous reading and demonstration on the black board, into their routine of teaching. In a few of the girls' schools, too, taught by young women, there is a highly creditable air of order and refinement observable. On the whole, however, the public seems not to call for very high qualifications in private teachers, and to allow them very great latitude and toleration. My clerk found one master reading "Bell's Life" to his scholars; I, myself, discovered two or three enjoying a pipe and newspaper during the afternoon school; and one woman whom I called on had sent her scholars to play in the streets while she was dressing her hair by the fire-side.

Business not
profitable.

Though there has been, as I have already mentioned, a considerable increase of the number of private schools since the Census, the business appears to be a bad one. Except in very favourable situations, the school fee cannot be raised much above the public school level; consequently, the private schoolmasters generally complain, and I believe most justly, that they find it

difficult to earn a livelihood. I met with an exception, indeed, in a Swedenborgian, who on my condoling with him on the hardness of his lot, raised his eyes to heaven and assured me that he "did not care a d—n for the money,—his reward was in heaven;" but I did not find many who were so high-minded.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

There is but little to be said respecting school buildings, and the other material appliances of instruction. School buildings.

The buildings are on the whole tolerably well adapted to the purpose. Some of those which were originally intended for schools are inconvenient in shape; others again, built in the first instance for Sunday schools, are spacious, and not ill calculated for their new functions. Those of later date, which are generally really handsome buildings, are all on the same type, that of long narrow rooms with groups of parallel desks ranged down one side, and a very small interval between the front desk and the opposite wall. In one or two instances, the elongation of the rooms is excessive. In the model schools, Bradford, for example, which are in the form of an L, it would be difficult for the master, stationed as he must be, at the angles, to distinguish one child from another at the extremity of the longer arm. For the purposes of exact discipline, engendered by the consciousness in each scholar that the master's eye is or may be upon him, the classes at the greatest distance from the angle might as well be in another county.

The grand defect in school buildings, both old and new, is the absence of class-rooms, or the inconvenience of their position. Deficiency of class-rooms. For the purpose of teaching reading they are almost essential in large and therefore noisy schools; yet very frequently they do not exist at all, and when by chance there is some accommodation of the kind, it is almost always insufficient and improperly placed. The model schools which I have mentioned are fairly provided, but I remember no other instance. The obvious principle that the class-rooms should be easily accessible without confusion and loss of time, and that the master should have power to inspect them readily without leaving the principal school-room, seems altogether lost sight of.

The system of parallel desks is swallowing up all other forms of school arrangement. In inspected schools it is all but universal, and even in uninspected schools there is a tendency to adopt it. Parallel desks almost universal. The appearance of neatness and order which it has is captivating; but without pupil-teachers it cannot, it is found, be worked successfully.

Two or three schools are arranged on what is, I believe, the old Borough Road plan, but with this exception, no peculiar system of school fittings, other than the parallel desk plan, came under my notice.

The supply of educational apparatus is in most schools adequate. Apparatus. Indeed, in the hands of a good teacher, a piece of chalk and a black-board seem to be quite sufficient for all purposes except that

of teaching reading. The great school at Rochdale is carried on most successfully by these simple appliances.

Books.

The Irish series of school-books are by far the most common, though the "British and Foreign," the "Christian Knowledge," and "Maculloch's" series are also in vogue. The reading books for the advanced classes are much too dry and unattractive in the opinion of the best masters. I never in one instance found the slightest apparent interest excited in a class by the reading lesson; and this, no doubt, is one of the causes of the fault, into which children almost universally fall, of reading mechanically without any apparent notion that the words have a meaning. They can hardly be expected to form habits of close attention to the signification of what they read, if their chief training is in a course of lessons, which are either too obscure for understanding or too uninteresting to repay the trouble of deciphering.

Private school buildings.

With regard to private schools, they are frequently close, crowded, and unwholesome; in several which I visited there was absolutely no room for a child to move from the desk at which it was sitting. They are usually arranged on no kind of system, though in some of the more recent ones, as I have said, the influence of the public schools is visible, and some attempt at organization is made. Black-boards and other simple appliances for collective instruction are to be found in a few, but the general character of the method of private schools is that of individual and unsystematic teaching.

Nature of day school education.

The next question to be considered is the result actually obtained through the means already detailed; I, what is taught in the various schools; and, II., with what success?

Subjects taught.

I. Reading, writing (including dictation), arithmetic, and for girls needlework, form the staple of instruction in all public schools. To these are added for the higher classes, grammar and geography universally, and English history, music, and drawing in some schools. I found about the following proportions of the public scholars learning these higher subjects in either place.

	PER-CENTAGES.			
	ROCHDALE.		BRADFORD.	
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.
Grammar - - - - -	39	33	33	31
Geography - - - - -	49	42	45	41
English History - - - - -	25	21	14	10
Music - - - - -	13	8	12	4
Drawing - - - - -	16	7	13	4

Grammar varies from the mere teaching of the parts of speech to the parsing and analysis of complex sentences; geography, from an outline of British geography to a complete survey of the map of the world; English history rarely amounts to more than a knowledge of the sequence of the kings and a very slight outline of the general course of events. As to music, but very few children are taught to read it, though at Bradford a few could do so on the tonic-sol-fa system. Drawing is practised only in a few schools, but is popular, and is extending. In four schools I found it taught by a professional certificated master from the Department of Science and Art, but it is so late an introduction that no progress had been made beyond elementary drawing of geometrical figures.

In addition to this purely secular instruction, religious instruction is universal, and as the Commissioners have requested an accurate description of the various modes in which it is conveyed in public schools, I proceed to speak of them more in detail.

Three modes of religious instruction.

The methods which I had the opportunity of observing were three:—

- 1st. The Church of England system, consisting of lessons in the Bible, the Catechism, and occasionally the Liturgy.
- 2nd. The Wesleyan system, consisting in the Bible lesson, and the teaching of the "Catechisms of the Wesleyan Methodists," particularly No. ii.
- 3rd. The British system, consisting in the Bible lesson alone.

The Bible lesson, as far as it is historical, is, I believe, much the same in all schools. First of all the class to be instructed reads, or hears read, some selected narrative portion, on the conclusion of which, the teacher examines the children collectively and catechetically on the facts contained in it, questions them, more or less, vaguely according to his skill, on collateral and suggested topics, gives needful explanations of geography and the like, and connects the lesson with those previously given. Lessons of this kind are mainly confined to Scripture history and fact, though occasionally the religious bearings of the narrative may be brought out by the teacher. Sometimes, however, a parable, or a didactic portion of the New Testament, is chosen for illustration, and the teacher, in this case frequently the principal teacher, unfolds the meaning in a conversational way by a mixed method of lecture and question and answer. So far, I believe, there is but little distinction in the methods adopted by different denominations. The differences arise in respect of doctrinal formularies.

Bible lesson.

In Church schools, of course the Church catechism is universally taught. The lower classes learn to repeat it by rote; the upper sections receive collective lessons on its meaning, and on the connexion of its parts. The best teachers keep this part of the instruction as far as possible in their own hands.

Church of England system

The Wesleyan teachers whom I met with, made but sparing use of the authorized catechisms, and relied more especially on personal comment arising out of the Bible lesson as a vehicle for conveying doctrinal instruction. Periodically, however, the chil-

Wesleyan system.

dren have a catechism lesson in the gallery. An answer or two is read to them, and in some instances repeated simultaneously till it is known by heart. The teacher then explains its meaning, makes them search for and learn by heart the Scripture passages referred to as authorities, and shows how these bear out the statement in the text. This system of Scripture proof seemed a great point with the Wesleyan teachers.

British system.

In the British schools, the religious instruction may be summed up in the reading of the Bible, and the Bible lesson such as I have described. Indeed, the principle of the system precludes any elaborate doctrinal teaching. The ten commandments are learnt by heart in the Bradford schools, but dogmatic instruction, properly so called, is, I was given to understand, very sparingly imparted, and in very general terms.

Religious impression one of the aims in religious instruction.

In all the schools it is professed, perhaps most emphatically in the Wesleyan, and least emphatically in the British, that the aim of their religious teaching is to create a religious impression, as well as to convey religious knowledge.

I saw, however, no reason to believe that much was either attempted or effected in this respect. But few men are habitually in such a mental state, as to be able to address themselves directly or indirectly to the heart and conscience of others without hypocrisy or painful effort, and unless there be present the unction of sincerity and spontaneity, it is hardly to be expected that a moral or religious appeal will be of much avail.

Private school programme.

Such is an outline of the public school curriculum. That of the private schools, which can in any way be compared with public schools, is professedly very much the same. The difference lies in the greater prominence given to the elementary subjects. History, grammar, and geography, though almost always professed, are little more than nominal. By history, I found ordinarily meant reading Goldsmith, and by geography and grammar, the repetition of a portion of a text-book. Religious instruction is for the most part practically ignored. It rarely amounts to more than the use of the Bible as a reading-book. The teacher may or may not make a remark upon the meaning of the lesson he has heard, but very seldom is anything like systematic teaching attempted. In a few instances, however, I found the afternoon of Friday devoted specifically to a religious lesson, and a good many dames and some old men teach by rote the Church catechism.

II. I pass next to the question of the success with which each kind of school teaches that which it undertakes.

Inspected public schools.

The best public inspected schools achieve, I suppose, something like the maximum of success possible under the present conditions of attendance. I was fortunate in having the opportunity of frequently observing one of the noblest specimens of the class in the parochial school of Rochdale. There could hardly be a more striking sight to the understanding eye than the interior of this school, in which I have seen 600 children present at one time, all under the most perfect command, moving with the rapidity and

Rochdale school.

precision of a machine, and learning as though they were learning for their lives. It is difficult indeed to overrate the greatness of the work which Mr. James Wrigley, to whose intelligence and unflinching energy the success of the school is entirely due, is effecting in the town. Not only are 700 children receiving in the school the benefits of a most awakening and stimulating instruction, and of an exact and intelligent discipline, but by means of an admirable system of night work not less than 400 or 500 families in the town are made to take an interest in the education of their younger members. I was assured over and over again by parents who had children at the school, that the scholar's slate of night questions frequently concentrated the attention of his whole family, who are thus associated with the work of the school most beneficially both for themselves and for him. Night work is usually a mere sham; in this school it forms one of the most essential features of the system of teaching, and involves no less than an hour and a half every day of additional school time for both master and pupil-teachers. Nearly half the scholars are half-timers, and it is from this school that I was able to form the best idea of what the half-time system can do, under the unfavourable conditions of attendance which always accompany it in considerable towns.

I satisfied myself that a child of ordinary abilities entering this school, even as a half-timer, between 8 and 9, with an average rudimentary instruction, and continuing in it till 13, as a half-timer might do, would almost certainly arrive at the first class, What may be effected in the day school. Clever children might reach it, as in fact the analysis of the classes given further on shows that they do, much earlier, and remain in it a long time. What does that imply? Fluent and intelligent reading in any book or newspaper; the power of writing from dictation ordinary sentences, such as would naturally occur in a letter, almost faultlessly as far as spelling is concerned, and in a very tolerable hand; a knowledge of all the practically important rules, and, probably, of the whole range of arithmetic, integral and fractional; a sound general notion of the map of the world, with an accurate knowledge of British geography; a connected, though slight, outline of the course of events in English History; and an ability to parse, and probably to analyse, any ordinary sentence.

A child, in fact, who has spent some time in the upper division of the first class in this school has received a sound education, abundantly sufficient for awakening his mind, enabling him to go on with self-instruction, and fitting him for any situation in life which he is likely to be called on to fulfil. Even if he never pass beyond the second or third class he will have been taught to read well, write fairly from dictation, and to make a simple calculation.

I have spoken individually of this remarkable school as illustrating more completely than any other which I saw the possible results obtainable under existing conditions.

No unassisted public school, and no private school under circumstances which admit of a fair comparison, could compare in Good Government schools the best.

efficiency either with it, or the excellent boys' school, Borough West, Bradford, or with some other of the Government schools which I saw.

Inferior ones not better than uninspected schools.

But I confess that my experience is, that an indifferent Government school is not one whit better than a fair specimen of those which receive no assistance. The White Abbey Wesleyan school, for example, at Bradford, and the St. Clement's National school, Rochdale, are very far superior in efficiency to some which have all the apparatus of pupil-teachers. There is no magic in the name of pupil-teachers; and I cannot but concur with the most experienced masters whom I met with, in the belief that they are an expensive delusion, unless the school, in which they are employed, be systematically and completely organized, and themselves placed under the constant supervision and guidance of the principal master. The Privy Council plan demands for its successful working a vigorous central authority, a sharp division of classes, a calculated distribution of time, in a word, a system.

Schools not systematic and completely organized.

It is precisely the want of system and of completeness of organization which is the most conspicuous fault of public schools. Very frequently the staff of pupil-teachers is incomplete; not uncommonly all are so young as to be unable to take the upper classes with effect. In consequence I found by inquiry that the head master frequently confines himself almost entirely to one or two of the upper classes. The rest of the school takes its chance with the pupil-teachers. The master, instead of being as he ought to be, ubiquitous, making every class his own, maintaining an uniformity of teaching, and seeing that every one does his duty from the top to the bottom of the school, is obliged to concentrate nearly all his attention on one section of his scholars.

It is to this want of intelligent system, much more than to any preference of masters for the more showy branches of education, that the rudimentary instruction of the lower classes of schools is not what it ought to be. The neglect of children in their early years is the great educational evil in my districts. This would seem to indicate that the schools ought to put forth their most vigorous efforts in respect of the elementary instruction of the lowest classes. But this is very certainly not the case.

Reading badly taught.

It is impossible, for example, in the cardinal article of elementary reading to overstate the imbecility with which it is taught by ordinary pupil-teachers. You may meet with children of average capacity who have been learning for years without mastering the rudiments. The wonder is that they learn anything at all on the plan which I have frequently seen adopted. A large class, probably of 25 children, stands up, sometimes in their parallel desks, sometimes in a group on the floor, to read to a pupil-teacher. Each child in order reads a single sentence so low, and in such a Babel of sound, that it is with the utmost difficulty heard by the teacher, and only half heard, if heard at all, by the rest of the class. When the child comes to a word which he does not know, he simply spells it letter by letter, and then, without making any attempt to find it out for himself, looks up at the teacher, who

forthwith to save trouble pronounces the word. No attempt is made to teach the art of division into syllables, and the old method of spelling seems universally discarded. The lesson goes on, and at the end each scholar has perhaps read two sentences, and heard three or four more, but it would be difficult to say what he had learnt.

In hardly a single school that I went to was the reading what it ought to be either in respect of expression or in merely mechanical facility. By far the best specimen which I met with, taking the age of the children into consideration, was in the Bradford workhouse. I found three boys from 8 to 10 years of age who read fluently a difficult portion of a leading article in the "Times," of which they could not understand a line. When they came to a long word, they went steadily and unerringly through it by the syllables. Though of a decidedly low physical organization, they had acquired the art very completely. The girls I found usually better readers than the boys, and some of the female pupil-teachers at Bradford gave admirable lessons; but generally speaking, reading is the weakest point in school instruction, and taught with the least intelligence.

The impression which an examination of a good many private schools left on my mind, is that in none of their grades are they equal in efficiency with the best public schools, having the same aim.

I met with some dames who taught reading very intelligently, but the best of them, though far surpassing a monitor or a second rate pupil-teacher in a public school, did not produce the same general result on their scholars as a really good infant school, such as Miss Abercromby's, Christ Church, Bradford. The school-masters almost universally say that children from an infant school make much better scholars than those from dame schools, and it is by no means difficult, as I proved several times, to recognize them when they are mixed in a class with others. They exhibit a marked superiority, both in intelligence and in manner.

In the more pretentious private schools, I found that the writing was usually as good and the copy-books frequently much neater, than is the case in public schools; the oral spelling (owing, I believe, to the use of the spelling-book) very nearly as good; the dictation much worse, in fact, abominable; the arithmetic much less sound when brought to the test, and the higher subjects, grammar and the rest, almost nominal. The reading, though universally vile in expression, was not unfrequently at least equal, as far as mechanical facility is concerned, to the standard of an average public school. Indeed, I very much doubt if any public school could teach it so quickly as was done in some small schools of this class which I visited. On the whole, however, it is certain that these private schools cannot compare in efficiency with a good public school. In the larger ones, the scholars are half their time doing nothing. The system of teaching being almost wholly individual, each child can command but a very minute fraction of the master's attention. In a school like Mr. Wrigley's on the other hand, the children are never left a moment to themselves; every minute is economized and turned to use.

Perhaps, however, the most marked superiority of the good public schools over the private, consists in the activity of mind and liveliness of attention which is visible in their scholars. In the one all is eagerness and emulation; in the other, one is struck by the lounging, listless air which pervades the place. I saw but one private establishment,—a large school taught by a man of superior education, near Bradford,—in which there was any appearance of lively alacrity. In the good public schools, it was very pleasant to see the eagerness to learn and the liking for being examined and tested, which the scholars displayed; catechetical instruction has the best effects in this respect.

THE HALF-TIME SYSTEM.

Half-time plan. This is, perhaps, the most fitting opportunity for speaking of that which is the most characteristic feature of the educational system in my districts, the operation of the educational clauses in the Factory Acts.

How it is carried out. The mode in which the half-time plan is carried out is almost universally as follows:—Every child between the ages of eight and 13, working in a factory, spends half the day, from 6 A.M. to 12 noon, or from 1 P.M. to 6 P.M., in the mill. During the other half, *i. e.* from 1.30 P.M. to 4.30 P.M., or from 9 A.M. to 12 noon, it is in school. Periodically, in some cases monthly, in others weekly, the morning and afternoon batches of children in each mill change turns, so as to effect an equitable division of school-time and work. On Friday the schoolmaster makes up for every mill, from which short-timers are sent to him, a record of the attendance or absence of each child for every day of the past week; without this certificate of previous school attendance, it is illegal to continue to employ a child. If absence has extended to the whole week, the child cannot be employed at all; if it has been but partial, for one or two days, it is the practice to compel the offender to make up for the lost school time by an additional attendance of an equal, or, as the rule is in some factories, a double time, by way of compensation. Schools, being open only five days in the week, a short-timer is in school something less on an average than 15 hours a week, from which must be deducted for each day not less than half an hour for prayers, an interval of recreation, and various interruptions. The time, therefore, during which a short-timer is under effective instruction is very short indeed; short as it is, however, in the case of girls, a large portion is abstracted for teaching sewing. Mixed schools devote usually about an hour and a half, girls' schools about an hour and three-quarters, to this purpose daily; and, as in a majority of cases, by a stupid arrangement, the needlework lesson is given only in the afternoon, a mill girl may, during her afternoon turn, lasting a week or a month, as the case may be, have not more than an hour a day for intellectual instruction. Indeed, in not a few private, and some public schools, needlework takes up the whole afternoon, and the girls may be left for a whole month without even having a reading lesson.

Two great advantages are claimed by its friends for this half-time plan. Its advantages.

1. The testimony of schoolmasters and the school registers alike show that it promotes regularity of attendance so long as the children remain upon the books of a school. The omission of one day's schooling involves the loss of two days' wages, sometimes of more, and parents are not likely to let whims of their own, or of their children, stand so directly in the way of their interest. To balance this advantage, however, there is, in large towns where factories are numerous, an increased tendency in short-timers to change schools. Almost every millowner, as I have said, virtually compels his short-timers to go to some particular school, public or private, which he adopts as his own; and as there is always plenty of masters whose employment is unpopular, and plenty of parents ready to send their children from place to place for the slightest real or imaginary advantage, the migrations are constant, and the changes in schools excessive. In Bradford, this evil prevails to an incredible degree. In one half-time school, where the average attendance was but 137, there had been 260 admissions during the past year; and though the evil is somewhat less in Rochdale, owing to the fact that the schools have more of a monopoly, it is still very great. The largest school there, with about 280 factory children on its books, admitted last year 249, without increasing its total number to any considerable extent.

1. In regularity of attendance.

Increased mobility of scholars.

2. Next, it is said that it prolongs the period during which parents are willing that their children should continue at school.

2. In lengthening the school period.

There can be no doubt that the half-timers in general are at school at a later age than the day scholars; in fact, they nearly all remain till 13, the practical limit of school life; but it by no means follows, that the total length of time during which they have been at school is proportionally greater. I satisfied myself, by repeated questions to individual children, and by an inspection of school registers both at Rochdale and Bradford, that on the average, half time children, at the commencement of their work, have been a much shorter time previously at school than day scholars of the same age. The following analysis of the admission register of the Rochdale Parochial School is a fair specimen of a large number which I made:—

Half-timers stay to a later age;

but come later also.

Age of Scholars on admission.	Half-Timers.										Age of Scholars on admission.	Day Scholars.									
	Number of Scholars who had previously been at School.											Number of Scholars who had previously been at School.									
	Never.	Less than 1 year.	Less than 2 years.	Less than 3 years.	Less than 4 years.	Less than 5 years.	Less than 6 years.	Less than 7 years.	Total.	Never.		Less than 1 year.	Less than 2 years.	Less than 3 years.	Less than 4 years.	Less than 5 years.	Less than 6 years.	Less than 7 years.	Total.		
13	1	5	4		4	7	2			32	13	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	17		
12	4	10	9	12	12	7	1			55	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	11		
11	8	11	11	13	4	2				50	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	18		
10	9	22	16	10	8					69	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	25		
9	15	21	15	15	1					73	9	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	25		
8	8	3	8	1						21	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	21		
—	45	72	63	60	36	16	7	1		300		6	20	41	32	25	13	7	3	147	

This shows distinctly, that though the average age on admission of the half-timers is much greater than that of the day scholars who enter between the half-time years, their average school period before admission is much less.

Prospect of compulsory education the cause.

I am afraid that it is the prospect of compulsory education which is at the bottom of this exceptional neglect, and this I found to be the opinion of those best qualified to judge. The knowledge that a child must go to school at a later period of its life, makes its parents more careless during its earlier years. This is the great blot on the half-time system on its present footing. It is not too much to say, that at Bradford, at any rate, it renders it to a great degree nugatory for good. By way of further illustration, from another point of view, of the extent to which the evil prevails, I append an analysis of 196 consecutive admissions of mill girls at a very meritorious girls' school (Model Schools, Manchester Road, Bradford,) showing the age of each child, and the position she took on first entry:—

		Classes.						Total.
		1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	
Ages	xiii.	-	1	2	2	11	-	16
	xii.	-	7	4	19	10	26	69
	xi.	-	3	4	12	6	16	42
	x.	-	1	4	6	6	18	38
	ix.	-	-	5	4	2	8	19
	viii.	-	-	1	2	3	5	12
Total		-	11	19	45	29	84	8

Nearly half (92) enter in the 5th and 6th classes, unable to read more than the alphabet and words of one syllable, no farther advanced, in fact, than they ought to have been at six; and yet amongst them are 40 girls above 12 years of age who can have no time before they ultimately leave school altogether to master even the lowest rudiments of learning. At another girls' school in Bradford I found a class of 29 mill girls,—

1 aged 13
 7 „ 12
 8 „ 11
 8 „ 10
 1 „ 9
 4 „ 8

of whom it might be said that they could not read at all. Several of the older ones had not been to school more than a few months, and that years previously. The case is but little better with the boys. Everywhere the lower classes are crammed with them, passing the later period of their school time under the lowest grade of instruction, drudging hopelessly amongst children many years younger than themselves, and finally leaving school unable to read a simple narrative with understanding, writing a most miserable

scrawl, and incompetent to do more than a simple addition or subtraction sum in arithmetic. In Rochdale the evil is perhaps not quite so conspicuous, owing to the fact that the children commence factory work a good deal earlier in life,—but the same disposition to neglect exists, though its consequences are partially averted by the circumstance that the period of compulsory education is longer.

It seems to me that in many public schools in which the two kinds of scholars are mixed, the interests of the half-timers are made to bend too much to those of the day scholars. The timetable is often so arranged that there is no equitable division of lessons between morning and afternoon, and in consequence a half-timer may go on a whole week or month with little or no instruction in writing or some other important subject. Needlework is certainly a difficulty even under the best arrangements, but in very few half-time schools is any attempt made to interperse it amongst the other instruction in a rational way. A few teachers divide it fairly between morning and afternoon,—but much more frequently it is assigned exclusively to one portion of the day, so that the half-time girls during one half of their time have no sewing at all, during the other half hardly anything else. The half-timers are, it is easy to see, very frequently looked on as a nuisance. Generally speaking, they spring from a lower grade of society than the day scholars,—have somewhat ruder manners, and give more trouble, without being more profitable, than half their number of full-time children. Some of the schools in receipt of Government aid, as the Bradford Borough West British schools and the Rochdale Wesleyan school refuse to take them at all.

The private factory schools in the Rochdale district are on the whole very unsatisfactory. I did not find a really good one, though two or three were fairly efficient. At least five which I visited, two close to the town and the rest in the outlying districts, are schools only in name, and a complete fraud upon the Factory Acts. In two, taught in cottage rooms by old incapacitated weavers, hardly any of the children learnt writing, and none could do more in the way of reading than scramble through an easy verse in the New Testament. Yet one of these schools provided education for 50 and the other for 18 half-time children. In another I found not less than 60 girls, chiefly short-timers, crowded into a frightfully hot room so tightly that it was almost impossible for them to move, with desk room for about 10, and apparently hardly any instruction given except a little reading and sewing. Schools like these answer the purpose for which they are established, of giving formal certificates of school attendance,—and so long as they have the support of the neighbouring millowners they may set at naught the competition of better schools, and the remonstrances of parents whose children they sacrifice. The Factory Inspectors may undoubtedly refuse to accept the certificates of a very inefficient school,—but the standard of competency which they feel themselves authorized to exact is very low, and their authority in this matter to be very sparingly exercised.

Half-timers frequently not fairly dealt with in public schools.

Private factory schools bad.

Under these combined disadvantages the system has not fair play, and the actual results which it produces are no measure of the results which it might produce. It can only be seen in perfection in a small place where there is only one school to which all the millowners must send their short-timers, and of this I had no example in my districts.

Possible efficiency of half-time instruction

Inferior to full time.

The question of the possible efficiency of half-time as compared with full-time instruction is peculiarly a question for schoolmasters. I found a remarkable concurrence of opinion amongst them on this topic. It is universally admitted that under similar conditions of attendance, half-time teaching cannot, as some enthusiasts have said, produce as great a result as full-time, and as far as my own experience extends, I noticed a general superiority in the day scholars over the half-timers, when a fair comparison could be made between them. Take, by way of illustration, the following analysis of the classes of the Rochdale school, one of about 40 which I made. All the children under half-time age are omitted, and II. and D. stand for half-timers and day scholars respectively:—

Classes.	Age of Scholars.												Total.		
	8		9.		10		11		12		13				
	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	D.	H.	
I.	1	-	2	-	13	3	20	6	15	17	6	4	57	30	
II.	1	-	9	2	11	6	7	7	6	12	3	2	37	29	
III.	5	-	8	1	13	1	7	11	2	11	-	1	35	25	
IV.	7	-	9	2	8	10	2	15	-	6	1	1	27	34	
V.	16	1	8	2	7	14	-	14	1	18	-	-	52	49	
VI.	22	4	11	10	-	14	1	16	1	12	-	1	35	57	
VII.	13	1	3	8	3	11	-	5	-	3	-	-	19	28	
VIII.	6	3	1	9	-	11	-	10	-	5	-	1	7	39	
Total	-	71	9	51	34	55	70	37	84	25	84	10	10	249	291

After making all allowances for the disadvantages under which half-timers labour, the superiority of the day scholars, which an inspection of the table will show at once, is too marked to be accounted for, except on the supposition that the mode of their instruction is more effective.

But nearly equal to it.

But admitting this general superiority, the schoolmasters who have had experience of both plans are unanimous in saying that half-time teaching is far more nearly equal to full-time than would be supposed. Some go so far as to assert that it is "very nearly as good." All admit that a double school-time produces nothing like a double result. Thus, Mr. Wrigley, whose long experience of

both plans, side by side, entitles his opinion to great weight, says, "Comparing the half-time instruction with the full-time instruction, the results obtained are, as nearly as I can express, in the ratio of two to three." What is certain is, that good half-time teaching begun at 9, and continued till 13, is abundantly sufficient to furnish a child of average capacity with a sound elementary education. At present neither millowners, parents, nor schoolmasters give it fair play. Yet even under all drawbacks, the standard of a good half-time school is very much above the average level which prevails throughout the country, and I myself met with scores of half-timers, indebted for all they knew to the system, who would bear comparison with the best specimens which the other plan could turn out.

I made special inquiry as to the effect which the morning's labour had upon the afternoon children in respect of their attentiveness and disposition to learn. Two masters only professed to find them sleepy and listless. The rest, including all the best teachers, had noticed no difference in this respect between morning and afternoon. On the general question of the effect of the union of work and schooling, I heard no opinion that it was disadvantageous, while I was informed by three or four masters of great experience that the regular habit of mind engendered by systematic labour has the effect of making the short-timers more steady learners, and more attentive to instruction than the day scholars; and that to the factory child the school, when carried on with spirit, presents itself as a relief from toil, not as an irksome business, oppressive by its length, and wearisome from its monotonous repetition.

I may add that the half-time system is highly popular. It is true that as far as the operative class is concerned, the favour with which it is regarded may be greatly, if not chiefly, due to the fact that it shortens the hours of labour, as well as enforces education. Nevertheless, I was always assured by working men that there is no desire on their part that the educational clauses should be repealed, even if the restrictions on the hours of labour could be at the same time retained. Compulsory education in the form which it assumes under the Factory Acts, is certainly not looked upon as a hardship by those whom it principally affects. As to the millowners, I was led to believe that the large majority of them approve the plan, though not a few feel themselves exceptionally treated by the law as it stands. Undoubtedly, this feeling of unequal treatment operates with some; indeed I have heard it avowed several times to discourage them from doing more than the minimum which the law requires. It is naturally irritating to find yourself subject to restrictions and penalties from which your next neighbour is exempt, apparently for no other reason than that it is more difficult to impose them in his case. On the whole, however, though the manufacturers dislike the trouble which the half-timers give, and dispense with them, in consequence, as far as they can, you hear few objections to the present system.

The Print Works Act was only in operation in two schools

Effect of half-day's work on disposition to learn.

Half-time system popular.

Print Works Act.

within my districts. In both I was given to understand that it was made use of to a very limited extent, and consequently I can form no judgment of its merits compared with the Factory Act. Indeed, from an expression in a letter which I received from one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools—"We seldom think the Print Works Act worth *acting upon*,"—I presume that in most cases it is used not habitually, but only when a pressure of business renders it necessary.

No experience
of industrial
schools.

Before concluding the subject of day schools I may mention that my districts afforded me no opportunity to form a judgment as to industrial schools and workhouse schools; the former do not exist, and of the latter I had only one specimen. That certainly was highly creditable, but it would be absurd to build up a superstructure of inference upon a single example. In the endowed schools I could not make out that the endowment had any influence one way or the other on their efficiency. The masters of nearly all being dependent for the greater part of their livelihood on *paying* scholars, have the same motives for activity as others. As to appointments to these schools, there can be but little doubt but that the present generation of trustees would regard solely the interests of the schools. On the last vacancy, the trustees of the Rochdale Free English school, who are about equally divided between Unitarianism and the Church of England, appointed a very well educated and competent man, who is a Wesleyan.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

Sunday schools
wholly religious.

The Sunday schools have ceased to be places of direct secular instruction, except to a very limited extent. The primary aim of their promoters is to teach religious truth and instil religious principles, not to provide a substitute for the work of the day school. Writing is universally banished, and reading is directly taught only to the infants and one or two of the lowest classes during a portion of the school hours, the remainder of the time being employed in giving them oral religious instruction. The rest of the classes read verse by verse a portion of the Bible, either selected by the teacher at pleasure, or, if the school be systematically organized, fixed according to some printed plan, such as that issued monthly by the Sunday School Union. In many schools, especially in outlying districts, where it is difficult to find a sufficient number of competent teachers, little more than the mere reading is attempted. In the higher class of schools, however, the teachers are more carefully chosen, and are expected to prepare themselves thoroughly during the week in the lesson appointed for the Sunday, so as to be able to point out its meaning and explain its difficulties. The Bible lesson comprises nearly the whole of Sunday school instruction; singing, prayer, and in Dissenting schools a short address from the superintendent of the day, fill up the time that remains.

Not more than two hours on each Sunday are effectively employed in teaching, and when it is considered that the attendance

is very irregular, not more than 65 per cent. of the scholars on the average being actually present, that the teachers are generally very far from efficient, and that all secular instruction is as far as possible eschewed, it is obvious that the Sunday school is in a direct sense a very feeble auxiliary to the day school: The utmost that it can possibly effect in the way of secular instruction, and this I found it did in some cases, is to teach a child the rudiments of reading.

Its indirect effects, however, both in encouraging and preserving education, are without doubt very great in districts such as mine, in which the system is carried out with great zeal and vigour. Indirect secular effects great.

1. The Sunday school organization is made the basis and starting point of other educational efforts. At Rochdale many of the principal Dissenting schools have established, besides Bible classes, Mutual Improvement Societies for the purpose of encouraging original composition and conversational discussion of topics of general interest. Each week one of the members is chosen to write an essay on some selected subject, which is read at the next meeting, and afterwards discussed and criticised in a kind of friendly debate. But on the whole these societies are languidly supported, and to judge from the earnest way in which I heard their supporters at a public meeting exhort the members to choose subjects of which they knew something, and not to extract their essays bodily from encyclopedias, they are not very efficiently conducted. 1. They encourage mutual improvement societies.

2. A more important contribution to education made by Sunday schools is the establishment of night schools in connexion with them. In Rochdale there are 15 of this description, with 797 scholars; in Bradford, 12, with 563 scholars. The teachers are all voluntary and the instruction gratuitous, but the attendance appears to be very irregular and desultory. 2. Also night schools.

3. In addition to these advantages, the Sunday schools, almost without exception, maintain lending libraries, amounting frequently to several hundred volumes, for free circulation amongst the teachers and scholars. The books, for the most part, are of a religious cast, but the more modern libraries contain a considerable number of amusing works, stories, travels, and the like. These are largely circulated, and afford a valuable opportunity of recreation and improvement to many persons who might, without it, be in danger of losing what they had acquired at the day school. In many schools, too, besides this circulation of books, inducements are held out to scholars to subscribe to cheap periodicals, which are thus sold in very large quantities indeed. 3. Lending libraries.

4. The importance of the Sunday school, however, when regarded merely from a secular point of view, is perhaps the greatest in reference to the scholars above the day school age, especially to females. The number of these is very great, as will appear from the subjoined statement taken from the returns furnished to me on the subject. 4. They supply more or less instruction to adults who would otherwise be neglected.

NUMBER OF SUNDAY SCHOLARS.

	Between 13—15.		Above 15.		Total.		
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	Total.
Rochdale - - -	1,415	1,560	1,761	3,287	3,176	4,847	8,023
Bradford - - -	1,381	1,240	1,415	2,460	2,796	3,700	6,496

The great mass of this large number of persons would be under no educational influence whatever but for the Sunday school. Through its means, however, they have at any rate a weekly opportunity of reading, without which, debarred as they are for the most part by household duties from the night school, the mechanics' institute, and the other means of instruction open to men, they might be in danger of losing altogether the small stock of knowledge which they had acquired as children.

Amount of religious knowledge acquired.

With regard to scriptural and doctrinal instruction, I was given to understand that the upper classes displayed very considerable knowledge, and that the teachers frequently took a great deal of trouble in the week to prepare for the Sunday's lesson; but I suspect that in the lower, very little goes on but the reading. The number of teachers required is so great that it is impossible, even in towns, to find a sufficient number of persons really competent to give specific religious instruction in a profitable way. The patrons of the schools universally complain of this defect, and some, particularly in the Church schools, have week-day classes of teachers, in order to prepare them for their Sunday's work, and to give unity and vigour to the conduct of the school.

On the whole Sunday schools have a beneficial educational influence.

Admitting all drawbacks, however, Sunday schools in my districts exercise, without doubt, a very beneficial educational influence. They do interest thousands, who without the opportunity they afford would be inactive, in the intellectual as well as religious improvement of their neighbours; they bring, to some extent, the more uncultivated portion of the people into contact with more instructed minds; and they supply a weekly recurring intellectual stimulus,—feeble probably, but still a stimulus,—to multitudes whose minds without them would absolutely stagnate. It would be foreign to the purpose of this Report to speak of the social and specifically religious influence, which in the northern districts they exert, but it is undoubtedly very great indeed.

EVENING SCHOOLS.

Evening schools.

The great number of evening schools which exists shows pretty plainly that they are felt to be necessary, and that they are highly popular; but in their present chaotic and unorganized condition they by no means take the part to which they are destined in the general scheme of education.

I was particularly struck, in the schools which I visited, with the anxiety to learn which was displayed. On one occasion I was examining a class of young men at Rochdale when the hour for breaking up arrived. I was about to stop, when one of the scholars appealed to me as follows,—“Go thou on, we want as much as we can get for our money.” In another school at Bradford, I found a class most industriously learning reading and arithmetic at once. Each scholar had by his side a Bible and a slate; when his turn came he read his verse, laid down his book the instant he had finished, and then went on with his sum till the circuit was again completed. The same eagerness was almost universally noticeable, though it is quite true that considerable numbers who begin with zeal while the thing is new, fall away when the novelty has worn off, and they discover that to learn is more laborious and tedious than they had imagined.

Evening scholars very zealous.

The progress made is frequently extraordinarily great. I met several young men working practice and proportion very fairly, who at the commencement of the school season could barely do simple addition and subtraction, and some of the advanced classes showed excellent results in grammar and composition.

Progress made great.

But on the whole the evening schools are by no means on a satisfactory footing.

Proper province of evening schools.

They would seem to have three functions to fulfil,—

1. To supply rudimentary instruction to those who have been neglected in youth.
2. To carry on without interruption the elementary instruction supplied by the day schools.
3. To provide secondary education to adults who are sufficiently grounded in elementary knowledge.

The first object is to a certain extent attained at present. At the private night schools, which are scattered up and down, reading and writing may be acquired from the beginning. And I suspect that however elaborate a system may be established, there will always be a large number of persons, who, from an unwillingness to expose their utter want of instruction, would prefer a small private school where they would be less observed.

The second object is altogether lost sight of. When a child leaves the day school it is cut adrift. There is no natural continuation of the day school, and to go on with the education in progress requires an effort of will and of choice at the very time when the temptations of liberty and thoughtlessness are strongest.

The third object is also almost entirely ignored, from whatever cause the neglect may arise, whether from the difficulty of finding teachers, or the absence of demand on the part of scholars.

It may be perhaps denied that the last-mentioned object is within the scope of any State system of education. Be this as it may, the two first embrace no further aims than are already undertaken by the existing plan. It is assumed that elementary instruction is necessary for children; it must be at least equally necessary for young men and women. Add to this the indubitable fact, that under the present conditions of the efficiency of schools and the attendance of children, a very large portion of the people

Suggestion for
the proportion-
ate extension of
evening schools.

do not, and perhaps cannot, get a sufficient education at the day schools, and it would seem to follow, that any general scheme of education which throws its whole strength into day schools is only doing half its work. In answer, therefore, to the inquiry of the Commissioners "what means may be adopted for the extension and improvement" of the evening schools, I venture to make the following very humble suggestion:—That in considerable towns, when a school applies for State assistance, it should be required to show, as a condition precedent, that its scheme of education is complete, embracing night as well as day-instruction. I do not mean that every day school should be required to maintain an independent evening school, but that security should be taken that, concurrently with day schools, there should be an adequate supply of night schools as well. This might be done by establishing under central pressure federations of day schools of all denominations receiving Government aid, for the single purpose of feeding and maintaining one secular night school in connexion with each, and supported with the whole influence of each. The day scholars might then, on the conclusion of their day school period, be passed on to the night school as the natural continuation of their education course; and there can be no doubt that the efficient masters, who gain influence with the scholars and their parents, might do this to a very great extent.

The central night school must, of course, have professional masters, and trained and paid assistant-teachers, and it would be easy, I should think, to elaborate some scheme by which the connexion with each day school should be made intimate and marked.

With respect to the cost there would be, I imagine, but little difficulty.

1. The attendance would be very great, if one may judge from the actual number of evening scholars in the present very inferior schools; and as almost all the pupils would be actually at work, and few would be married, the school fees might be tolerably high.
2. The subscriptions would be large. All denominations might join in supporting establishments which would be secular in their nature, and which no one would desire to see other than secular. And evening schools are precisely the institutions which command most liberality and zeal, witness the interest taken in the Female Educational Institute, the Church Literary Institute, and other similar establishments in Bradford.
3. No new buildings and apparatus would be necessary. The existing school-rooms would be ample.

But even if the expense were great, it would be better, I think, to reduce the number of day schools than to leave the evening schools altogether neglected. For example, there are at Bradford at this time 41 day schools, and there will shortly be more, receiving Government aid. At the same time there are hundreds of children every year leaving these very schools with nothing more than the most rudimentary instruction, which, unless it be continued and extended, will be of very little value indeed.

Would it not be better worth while to give this large class of children the opportunity of getting an education which is something more than a name, than to go on establishing more and more day schools, whose chief effect at present would be to attract a number of scholars who without them would get elementary instruction in private schools?

RESULTS.

I have now arrived at the last question into which I was directed to inquire, "the intellectual results of education" amongst the working class. Results of education.

I understand by the phrase "intellectual results" two things:—

First, the amount of actual knowledge and power over processes which has been acquired through the education given;

Secondly, the effect which education has produced upon the intellectual habits and condition of the people.

With reference to the first question, I have already spoken of the amount of attainments usually acquired by children at the day school. In a tolerable power of reading, very indifferent writing, and an imperfect acquaintance with the first four rules of arithmetic, is summed up the average equipment of secular knowledge with which the great majority of children enter upon working life. Comparatively few proceed at once to the evening school. If they do, it is usually for the purpose of proceeding a little further with elementary instruction, not to acquire a secondary education. If they do not, my experience of evening scholars and the testimony of working men would lead me to believe, that excepting the power of reading they rapidly lose their day-school acquirements. Reading, however, is almost universally practised, chiefly but not exclusively in the two branches of politics and fiction. The circulation of newspapers and cheap weekly periodicals is perfectly enormous, and I was constantly told by the stationers, and I believe with perfect truth, that no class takes such delight in reading as the working class. By way of specimen of the variety of interests which prevail, I subjoin a list of a few books which I myself saw issued in succession to working men from the library of the co-operative store, Rochdale,—

Volney's Ruins of Empires.	Burton's Anatomy of
Hazlitt's Essays.	Melancholy.
Redgauntlet.	Mary Barton.
Howitt's Rural Life.	Gilbert Gurney.
Thackeray's Irish Sketch Book.	Bolingbroke's Letters.
Roscoe's Life of Leo X.	Cooper's Water Witch.
Marryatt's Pirate.	Forbes' Tour in Ireland.
Peregrine Pickle.	Childe Harold.

This variety of choice indicates at any rate a lively curiosity, if it does not prove the existence of a sound instruction. The Amusement the chief object in reading.

natural craving for recreation is the secret of this great popularity of reading. Over and over again I met with young people in evening schools, who had come to learn because they could not bear to be deprived of the pleasure derivable from books, which they see every one about them enjoying. But as far as I could make out, serious study for the purpose of self-improvement is far less common, as indeed is the case in all classes of society. It is found that lectures, unless they have something rhetorical to season them, and scientific classes, attract but very few attendants. Partly this is owing to their inferior quality, partly, to the low standard of elementary instruction which prevails, but chiefly, no doubt, to the fact, to which every working man whom I asked bore emphatic testimony, that after a day spent in manual toil, a man is very rarely disposed for any but light and amusing occupations.

It is true there are exceptions. It is quite common to meet with workmen who can converse with good sense and considerable information on the affairs of the day, and on general political topics; and a few carry on their education to a high point and become really well instructed men. I met with two or three artizans living by manual labour, who might lay claim not only to the possession of extensive general knowledge, but even of liberal cultivation. Such men are the triumphs of self-instruction, which, in the present condition of the educational system, is almost the only source of secondary education open to the poor. On this point I may quote the testimony of a distinguished man of science resident in the Rochdale district. "The importance of the actual knowledge acquired at schools, apart from the more formal acquirements of reading, writing, and arithmetic, has been much exaggerated. Nine-tenths of the information possessed by an intelligent working man has been acquired after leaving school. In many cases the information of such a man on special subjects will compare favorably with that of persons of the middle classes, or even higher classes. In Lancashire there are hundreds of excellent botanists among the working classes, who, if examined, would probably be found to possess more knowledge on this particular subject than all the graduates of all the universities in the kingdom. Not a scrap of this was acquired at school, but entirely by self-instruction. There are others whose knowledge of mathematics and various branches of natural history is by no means despicable. Indeed the love of abstract science is greater among the working classes than among those immediately above them. To encourage such as are inclined in these pursuits would effect much good; and Government or rather the State, might do much by presenting collections of good, valuable, not so-called popular, works on science, objects illustrative of natural history, &c., scientific instruments, &c., to local institutions, especially such as are remote from towns," &c.

II. With regard to the second branch of this subject, the effects of education on the people, it is impossible within the limits

prescribed, to do more than glance at one or two of the more important in a summary way.

1. *It has refined their tastes.*—The desire for coarse and animal pleasures, though still far more rife than it ought to be, is to some extent giving way to more rational recreations. An intelligent love of good music is widely diffused. Chorus singing in both places is a popular amusement, and in Bradford has attained to great perfection. A piano is by no means an uncommon piece of furniture in a working man's house; and I have myself, on several occasions, heard a very tolerable performance in a cottage.

Intellectual pleasures more prized than formerly.

Drawing is at present but a new thing; but to judge from the pleasure which the children in schools take in it, and its decided popularity with parents, it will no doubt make rapid progress.

2. *It has humanized manners.*—To judge from the stories current in the neighbourhood, the outlying districts of Rochdale must have been in a condition approaching barbarism within living memory. A stranger could hardly pass along the public road without insult and molestation. All that now remains of this rudeness is a bluntness of manner and a plainness of speech, which, though indicative of a certain want of sensibility, is, if I may judge from my own experience, as far as possible removed from incivility. Brutal sports, bull baiting, cock fighting, and the like, once the delight of the people, have almost wholly disappeared; and I was given to understand that a general softening of the harshness of character, which is a serious hindrance to the spread of education, is gradually but certainly in progress.

Manners softened.

3. *It has developed their practical common sense.*—Education has set the people thinking on the economical laws under which they live, and on the practical efforts which they can independently put forth for the bettering of their condition. Though there is still a lamentable deficiency in this respect, I was assured that saving habits and prudent foresight are much more common than formerly was the case. Rochdale affords a conspicuous example of this tendency. Fifteen years ago the "Equitable Pioneers' Co-operative Society" commenced existence with a capital of 28*l.* as a small shop on the co-operative principle. It has now grown into a great investment society for the savings of the poor, with a capital of not less than 16,000*l.*, and does a business across its counters of upwards of 80,000*l.* a year. By its side and through its agency have grown up a large Corn Mill society, and a Manufacturing society, which is at this moment erecting an extensive new mill, in order to enter at once upon the cotton manufacturing business. In a word, these men have for many years carried on with signal success an immense distributing trade, and are now attempting the still more difficult problem of producing on a great scale, by means of the associated savings of working men. Considering the enormous difficulties which surround a design of this kind, I consider this to be by far the most striking example of working class intelligence which came under my notice. Working men exclusively conceived the plan, contributed the capital, and conducted the management, and whatever be the issue of the

Practical good sense developed.

Example in co-operative societies of Rochdale.

present most interesting experiment, the fact that the original society has lived and prospered so long in spite of the inexperience of its promoters, a multitude of counsellors, and the natural timidity of small shareholders, cannot but be considered as a proof of no ordinary intelligence, sagacity, and forbearance. That both its existence and its success are due to the progress of education, does not admit of doubt. It sprang originally out of the discussion of social topics beyond the reach of the uneducated; its leading spirits are men of considerable cultivation, and by way of proof that its members generally regard education as an essential element of their design, it is a rule of the society to deduct yearly two and a half per cent. from their profits "for educational purposes." In this way they expend something like 250*l.* a year in the maintenance of a well-supplied newsroom and of an excellent library, now amounting to 2,900 volumes.

Question of the comparative value of educated and uneducated labour.

I feel quite unable, within reasonable limits, to do more than glance at this part of the subject; but before concluding, I should desire to revert to one topic on which I have previously touched, but which in the Instructions is assigned to this branch of the inquiry.

I have said that, so far as I can judge, superior instruction has but little, if any, immediate marketable value in the ordinary occupations of life. In a contract with a workman the degree of his instruction does not form an element in the master's calculation. But, nevertheless, it was the expressed opinion of almost all the employers whom I questioned, that for every kind of work above mechanical drudgery, educated workmen have the advantage in superior quickness of observation, readiness to learn, and desire to excel. Some think that they are not so "settled" in their employment as less instructed men, but the general testimony was that education, in the main, had a tendency to make better workmen as well as better men.

Respecting its beneficial effects in a moral sense, there was no doubt or hesitation expressed amongst any class of society.

I have, &c.

J. S. WINDER.

To the Commissioners appointed to
Inquire into the State of
Popular Education in England.

REPORT
OF
GEORGE COODE, ESQ.

REPORT of ASSISTANT-COMMISSIONER GEORGE COODE, Esq.,
on the STATE of POPULAR EDUCATION in SPECIMEN MANU-
FACTURING DISTRICTS in the POOR LAW UNIONS of DUDLEY,
WOLSTANTON, NEWCASTLE-UNDER-LYNE, and STOKE-UPON-
TRENT, in the COUNTIES of WARWICK and STAFFORD.

London, August 26, 1859.

MY LORD DUKE AND GENTLEMEN,

IN obedience to the instructions of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the state of popular education in England, I have completed an inquiry into the state of popular education in the Dudley Union, which is for the most part situated in the southern part of the County of Stafford, and in the Unions of Stoke-upon-Trent, of Wolstanton, and Burslem, and of Newcastle-under-Lyme, which are all in the northern parts of the same county.

Having forwarded to you, according to my instructions, the particulars of the inquiry in the statistical forms framed by the Commission as these particulars came to my knowledge, I have now only further to report upon such other matters as came within my observation, and were not susceptible of a statistical or of a uniform mode of representation. In making this report, I will, in compliance with your instructions of the 2d of April 1859, follow the order of the printed instructions prepared by the Commissioners for the guidance of the Assistant Commissioners, combining under each respective head the observations applicable to all the Unions to which my inquiry extended.

But it is necessary, in the first place, to describe some of the leading characteristics by which these districts are distinguished the one from the other, in respect of some natural and economical relations of their populations by which the state of education is mainly affected.

THE DUDLEY UNION.

The Dudley Union, in which I commenced my inquiry on the 19th of October 1858, and terminated it on the 29th of January 1859, comprises four parishes, viz, Dudley, Tipton, Sedgely, and Rowley Regis, the area of the whole being 17,984 acres, and bearing at the last census a population of 106,530.

What is an important consideration in this inquiry, each of these parishes is subdivided into church districts, each with its National school, the incumbents and curates of which are now the most active agents in the extension of education to the poor.

The whole of this Union is situated in the midst of a district distinguished from all others by its natural advantages for the working and use of coal in combination with the production of iron.

The great iron district of South Staffordshire is great by its vast and concentrated productiveness, not by its superficial extent, which does not anywhere exceed ten miles in length or five miles in breadth, or an area of considerably less than 50 square miles on the whole. This district is known as "the black country," by which the aspect of its surface, everywhere nearly covered with the waste banks of pits and the scoriæ of smelting works, and its permanent dense atmosphere of smoke, arising from innumerable coke hearths, furnaces, and shafts, are well designated. Within this district, and nearly in its centre, lies the Dudley Union, comprising an area of rather more than one-half of the whole, or about 28 square miles.

Coal-fields, beds of ironstone and clay, rocks of limestone and sandstone of vastly greater dimensions exist elsewhere; but here in this district all these are assembled together in the smallest known space near to the surface, and capable of being gotten by the smallest expenditure of capital and labour.

Much of these natural riches is at the very surface of the ground. A shaft of 110 to 150 yards in depth commonly passes through beds of ironstone, said to yield more in a given space than any others known, through beds of coal of thickness unparalleled in this country (sometimes with slight partings reaching 30 feet or more), and through brick and fire-clay of the most valuable kinds, not only for the furnaces and constructions necessary for the manufacture of iron, but equally valuable in most of the arts in which fire is largely employed, and for which great quantities both in a raw state and made up are exported abroad.

All this mineral wealth is to be had for the taking. The owners draw prodigious revenues, letting their properties on terms to facilitate the most rapid extraction of the material from the earth, and to assure to every adventurer possessing ordinary energy and some sobriety a rapid and often an enormous fortune, and these adventurers in their turn allure to the work, by high wages, a great and ever-increasing but always insufficient population of rude labourers.

All the operations involved are such as to require in the mass of the labourers employed great bodily strength and endurance, but little skill of any kind, and no kind of intellectual or moral cultivation. Indeed many prosperous employers are found conducting very large operations who have themselves risen from the lowest occupations in the pit or at the furnace or the forge, and have never acquired the rudiments of writing or of reading, or any other language but collier's English. But these must all necessarily be gifted with shrewdness, and must have habits of continued application, vigilance, and sobriety. Such qualities are by no means required in the mass of their labourers, who are, if they have strength and the skill sufficient to use a pick or run a truck,

sure of earnings that will enable them to live at all times in coarse plenty, varied by frequent and gross excess. Their heavy labour and its consequent exhaustion requiring refreshment is, in almost all cases, the pretext for excessive drinking of the strong ale of the country; and the excuse is more readily admitted for those employed in occupations in which they are exposed to a high temperature. Little other relaxation is commonly attainable by this class of men. What is provided in the way of shows, of music or dancing, is chiefly provided by the keepers of drinking shops, which are more numerous and their saloons more splendid and more frequented in proportion in the town of Dudley than in any place I have ever seen in any of the other great seats of manufacture or commerce in Great Britain.

The very exhausting labour in the manufacture of iron, especially that of puddlers and shinglers, involve no higher mental or moral qualities, but by the greater wages it commands, and the greater pretext it affords for drinking, causes the class of labourers engaged in it to take a leading part in the coarsest modes of relaxation and the least interest in their own and their children's mental or moral culture. Such labourers see in their rough but highly paid labour a source of all the enjoyments they can best appreciate, and they very commonly express themselves as desiring no better for their boys than that they may be strong and hardy enough to follow their fathers' calling. They say, "I have done well in it, why should it not do for them?"

But if such strength be wanting in their boys there is a great amount of highly-paid employment ever ready for them, and for girls and for women. The production on the spot of vast quantities of iron rod of all sizes gives occasion to several lighter occupations in which light iron rod is used in short lengths, and boys and women and girls can be fully and profitably maintained. The chief of these in the Dudley Union is nail making, the next in importance is chain making, and the township of Netherton is said to be the only place in the kingdom where Jews' harps are made. These occupations are carried on at home, or in small adjacent buildings, usually a single room, in which hearths are erected, at a cost of 10*l.* or 12*l.*, at which three or four persons can work together, and which can be hired, with an adjacent cottage, at 2*s.* 6*d.* per week. The occupation is decidedly a popular one with all who exercise it, for being carried on at home, it may be taken up or laid aside at pleasure; work is intermixed with leisure or play, one of the family taking up the task another leaves, and all are free to gossip or amuse themselves with their friends and neighbours while their work is going on, without control of foremen or employers, or the restraints of the system of routine that is necessarily enforced in every factory or extensive workshop. Mothers commonly work with a nursing child on their back, who is thus almost justly said to be "born a nailor." Her children help in one way or another from the earliest age, and frequently begin to make nails at six or seven

years of age, and are useful in many ways in the work as soon as they can walk. The girls as they advance in strength make nails of the heavier weights, at seven years of age fully earn their own living, and usually continue at the occupation all their lives. Married women, well supported by their husbands, and abandoning the occupation for a time, commonly resume it when their husbands are unemployed or "on strike," or a long time "at play," or on any occasion when their resources fall short. The general rule, however, is, that when one of a household nails, all nail, and all are away from school. The father of a family of nailors will usually earn 9s. or 10s. a week, and with some steadiness 15s. or 16s.; the mother 4s. or 5s.; the elder girls, if good workers, 6s. or 7s.; the other girls and younger boys 4s. or 5s.; boys of 10 or 12, 10s.; and youths of 18 as much as men. But as boys grow up they commonly take to heavier work, of which chain making is one kind requiring a little more skill and strength, which may be begun, as it commonly is, at 6 or 7 years of age, and sometimes at 5, when a boy can blow the bellows for his father, and be worth 6d. a day, or, for 5 days, 2s. 6d. a week, and may be pursued for life, the making of the larger chains usually carried on in factories requiring a man's strength. But practice in chain making more commonly leads to employment on the more remunerative works of the larger forges for general purposes.

In all these lighter employments children rapidly attain a remarkable independence of conduct, consequent on their independence of their parents' aid to maintain them. Still the greater number live with their family, and contribute to the comfortable maintenance of the household, to which a part of their earnings is applied, the rest being spent in such amusements as they are led to by the example of their elders, the chief being the drinking shop and the dramatic, musical, or choreutic entertainments provided for them there. In these both sexes partake from a very early age, it being usual to find at these drinking shops nearly equal numbers of men, women, boys and girls. Boys and girls associate in the most familiar and unrestrained manner from the earliest ages, and long before puberty the delicacy of girls is lost, mainly in their own houses and among their nearest relations, and afterwards no restraints are put by parents or by neighbours' opinions on their inclinations. Every magistrate assures me that it is held rather a shame to a young woman not to have, than to have, a bastard child, and the details given me by the most respectable and trustworthy witnesses of the early, unconcealed, and nearly promiscuous sexual connexions severely taxed my own power of belief, and would, if they could be reported, be certainly discredited by most men of the world only acquainted with the ordinary profligacy of the poor of our country, our towns, or our cities. With all this, the behaviour and manners in other respects of girls and women is not in public less decent than that in places of better repute, and it is generally asserted that this early corruption of females does not hinder

them from being very good neighbours, and excellent, hard-working, and affectionate wives and mothers. I visited with the superintendent of police, Mr. Burton, to whose assistance and intelligence I am largely indebted, all the more frequented drinking places in Dudley, and with Sir Horace St. Paul, whose exertions to ameliorate the morals, and especially the sobriety, of the labouring people of Tipton are most energetic and incessant, I visited many of the smaller and least respectable drinking houses. In all cases it is a subject of remark to all strangers that these people drink so deeply and continuously of their strong ale with so little excitement, and it is explained by the early habit of drinking, combined with their steady and heavy bodily exercise at their daily work. I went to every wake or fair or general out-door gathering that occurred during my visit of two months to Dudley, and was struck by the stolidity with which the people, young and old, attended the amusements in the booths; which, nevertheless, were all constructed on the plan of providing for the spectators the greatest amount of low drollery or of horror that was possible within the limit of time. The spectators often sat for hours seeing a series of repetitions of the same piece; and indeed some of them, as I myself ascertained after knowing the whole by heart, continue enjoying their silent and apparently impassive amusement until the booth closes or their money is all spent.

To the mass of the parents in this the most numerous class of workpeople in this district, the advantages of education for their children cannot be very apparent, while its attendant disadvantages are manifest and not to be mistaken. They see some of the most prosperous men in the world who have attained this prosperity without any other education than that of the nail shop, the pit, or the forge, and these men are just the best understood by workpeople, and the most popular of the richer classes. They see no greater, if any equal, prosperity attending the people who read and keep books, shopkeepers, lecturers, ministers of religion. Learning is rather thought a drawback. It is a common thing to say, "The father went to the pit and he made a fortune, his son went to school and he lost it." Workpeople in this district, who may be supposed to consult only their children's welfare, may be excused for preferring their own rough robust employment, well paid as it is, and admitting of great freedom of choice, when to work and where, and when to play, to that of the people whom they see fixed all day and every day to the desk or the shop. The greatest friends to education, such as the Messrs. H——, chain-makers at Crawley Heath, who make great exertions and sacrifices to keep up their excellent evening schools for their workpeople, reluctantly admit that the schooling does not in the least add to the skill of the labourers in these employments. In many shops you find some, if not all of the best workmen wholly unschooled and destitute of all the rudiments of education. In a room containing nearly a score of persons, to which

I was directed because the two best nailors at Rowley Regis were of the party, only one could read a little, of the two "crack hands" neither remembered ever having been even at a dame's school, although the mother of one of them asserted that he had been at such a school for a time in his infancy while his elder sister had had a good job, and could not attend to him and the other children at home. These men were the owners of valuable breeds of pigeons, the cost of the keep of which reached, in the instances of several workmen of whom I inquired, from 4s. to 5s. a week for peas and barley, in the management and flying of which they spend a large portion of their time, and on the performances of which they bet largely. These men, as I found, were the standards of ambition of most of the boys living near them. Yet most of them told me that they could not afford to send any even of their youngest children to school, at a cost of 2*d.* or 3*d.* a week each.

Compared with these employments, which require nothing but bodily strength, and which can be engaged, in at such early ages, there is in the immediate neighbourhood little demand for the service of schooled boys or girls. The ordinary business of the place is of that heavy and wholesale character that there is but small occasion for errand boys or shop boys. The people commonly market for themselves, and themselves carry home their purchases. Even the more prosperous and wealthy people know better how to make and to save money than how to spend it. They have no examples amongst them of the more highly educated classes, of gentry or nobility, living habitually near them, or in reciprocal sociality with them. Their households are commonly supplied in a very coarse and almost sordid way, without elegance or refinement, and their sociability is kept up in a way that involves little trouble or expense. Their household and personal servants are accordingly few in number, and from the want of refinement of masters and mistresses, generally ill-trained, though necessarily very highly paid, where all labour is in such great demand. They need no education, nothing but bodily strength, for domestic service, at high wages, in this district, and they naturally do not aspire to accomplishments which are not in request here, and are only required in distant places, where their wages would be lower and their freedom less.

The agriculture of this district is wholly subordinate and subjected to the exigencies of the other occupations of mining, quarrying, smelting, and forging. In large tracts the country, which was once beautiful wood and pasture, is now wholly covered with barren and chaotic mounds, and banks of the waste of pits, and the ash, slag, and scoriæ of furnaces. All the surface of the land is held subject to the liability, always imminent, to be broken up at any time by the sinking of shafts and the deposit of waste. Under such circumstances extensive farming is impossible. The land uninjured by the other industries is mostly in small holdings used as pasture, which is highly profitable, owing to the large

demand, most inadequately supplied, for milk. One thing in which this district is more favoured than most mining districts is, the fact that the waste usually thrown out from coal pits is in the course of three or four years, owing to great quantities of valuable salts in this waste, covered with a fine grass, and becomes pasture for cows. A sheep is rarely or never to be seen on these pastures, and the dry and barren cows, hastily and coarsely fattened, afford the only beef known to the butcher, and this, poor and tasteless as it is, is seriously declared by most people to be usually preferred to heifer or ox beef. The farmers, if they may be called such, are usually only specimens of the rest of the population, are generally less able-bodied, but no less rude in their morals and coarse in their habits. They are certainly more thrifty as a class, and less given to spend their gains in drink, but they have no higher ambition for their children than that they should engage in the common pursuits of the district. Still their opportunities enable such of them as send their girls to school to keep them longer there than the workpeople do.

In this district then the great demand and the great rewards are for the bodily, and not the mental labour of those who have only their labour to dispose of. A child of seven years of age is of immediate use and a source of profit to its parents, if put to some one or other of the employments which abound in their neighbourhood. To put it to school is to forego this present benefit entirely, and what is more difficult still, is to incur an expense in addition to the uncompensated keep of the child, which must now encroach on the earnings of the other members of the family. The manifest interest that parents have in putting their children at an early age to these profitable employments instead of the school, is greatly intensified in the case of even industrious and comparatively sober and prudent parents, where their families are too numerous to be comfortably supported by the man's earnings, or where his employment fails or becomes slack, or is subject, as most occupations here are, to the operations of frequent strikes. Widows with families, even where they have some education themselves, and would value it for their children, may in any view be justified in preferring a poor independence obtained by their children's exertions to pauperism for the whole family, and for these children a workhouse education, which would in the end, place them in a worse industrial and social position than they will arrive at by entering at once on the career afforded by the local employments. Idle and profligate parents on both sides, of course, too readily avail themselves of their power over their children to obtain for themselves an easy indulgence in their propensities.

Such appears to be the natural condition of the large mass of the working population of this district in regard to education as an object of desire to themselves and their children. However amongst these a few are to be found of surpassing energy and ambition, who have experienced the want of such a power of

writing as would enable them to keep their accounts, and to make memoranda and appointments, and recognise in this want the obstacle to the greater success which they know that their natural abilities would otherwise have secured to them. Such instances as that of W. C., are by no means rare. He was a pitman, who had an industrious good woman for his wife. By his industry and skill he was soon a doggie, and then a butty, and what is the usual accompaniment of this position, took a public-house, which his wife managed well, and to the satisfaction of her neighbours and customers, and of which they soon acquired the freehold, as they did of some score or more cottages. W. C. pursued his trade till he became what is a high and lucrative position indeed for a pitman to attain, a bailiff to some of the greater coal masters and owners in the country round, and he might have been, what is a still more honourable thing, a ground bailiff, but for his inability to write. Having made a good deal of money he at length entered into a partnership with two other persons in some pits and works, into which he put a large sum (the amount of which I forget) in money and his practical skill and personal attendance, his partners undertaking the book-keeping, the correspondence, and external business, for W. C. was wholly illiterate, although his talents, as I can testify, were of a high order, and his language, which is not very strongly provincial, clear and appropriate to an extent rare even in educated men. He and his wife had kept their accounts of their public-house in symbols invented by themselves, chalked on the back of their door, and in the case of a dispute as to a long running account with a commercial traveller who for months had occasionally made payments on account, they had to take their door off its hinges into court, and succeeded in making the judge and jury understand their notation, and give more faith to their chalked door than to the note book of their debtor, and they got a verdict for their demand to the last halfpenny. W. C. was obliged to take, in a great measure, on trust what his partners told him of their written transactions and accounts, and to take their word and their lawyer's for what he ought to put his mark to; and to make business more easy, gave them authority to make all engagements for him. One day, to his astonishment, he found the sheriff in possession of all his property, his partners eloped, and himself destitute. His wife died in a few months, as the people say of a broken heart, and W. C., still an intelligent and sober man, has never made a stroke again for anything beyond his meat, drink, and a pipe. Not only does he lay his whole misfortune to his want of a little reading and writing, but his neighbours for miles round bear their testimony to the fact. He believes now that no success worth striving for can be made secure without a power of reading and writing, and he points out several of his neighbours who chiefly by this aid are prosperous beyond the usual measure of their fellows, as J. P., once a nailor now a grocer E. B., once a puddler now a grocer; C. H., once

a nailor now a grocer, and owner of four houses; all of whom he remembers as boys educated at Hill's school, the first school that was ever known in that place. He declares that generally men with some education, though little, have got on best; they may not work better, but they can manage better. Such a case as this of W. C.'s makes a great and a lasting impression on all the working people of a neighbourhood who have any ambition for themselves or their children to rise in life. The number of working men who under some such motives as these put their children to school at an early age is not inconsiderable, and here and there one perseveres in making a present sacrifice of gain, and help to keep their boys at school till they obtain a useful plain English education. A very few, whose children get credit at school and promise well, make really great sacrifices, and keep them there long enough to enable them at leaving to obtain superior employments where their acquirements are of value. Still all the effect of all possible influences of this kind operating on the labouring classes alone in this district would have been wholly inadequate, unassisted by other agencies, to establish a single school, or to support a single schoolmaster or schoolmistress able to supply a good plain education fitted to allow the play and help the work of the faculties of a working man.

"Supply" and "Demand" in Education.

Nowhere in the world can better be seen than in parts of this district, as, for instance, in Lower Gornal, a district which includes Himley, the Staffordshire seat of Lord Ward, the difference that there is between a want of education and a demand for education, between actual destitution and that sense of deprivation which is one element in what economists denote by the term demand. Here is everywhere, as a rule, abundant means, in universally high wages, to pay for a useful education; here is everywhere ignorance and rudeness, requiring in the highest degree the ameliorating action of education, and if the want alone constituted a demand, here would be a demand, if anywhere, adequate to command the desirable supply. Whoever should come into this district, holding the tenet that the supply of education will always follow the demand for it, would soon see that there can be no effective demand for education wherever education is most of all necessary. It requires knowledge to know the use of knowledge, education to know practically the use of education. Those without it cannot judge of what its value would be to themselves, if they could have it at once by paying a price for it. If they should have a conviction of its usefulness to themselves, still the most ignorant are aware that the price of schooling must be paid at once by an immediate sacrifice, and continued for a long period forward before the beneficial result of the sacrifice is to be attained; the sacrifice is all present and prolonged—the reward all remote and beyond it. But in education the want is even still less an active demand

than it would be when felt for themselves by adults or persons having the control of themselves or of means sufficient to obtain the object. In education the want is practically not that of adults but of children who least of all know the benefit to result to them from the expenditure, the restraints and pains of schooling, and who, if they did know all this, have neither the disposal of themselves nor of the money required to obtain it. The want of education is a children's want, not of anything sensible at the moment, but of improved faculties in their future life. This is not felt by them as a want—still less can it take in them the shape of an economical "demand." As regards the poor, whether parents or children, the want is manifest not so much to themselves as to others who observe them from a superior position. To call this want in the poor a demand by the poor is idle: and to infer from such an imaginary demand the economical consequence—a certainty of an adequate supply—is an illusion which would require but half an hour's observation in these places to be dissipated for ever, or to be exchanged for the wholly opposite conclusion, that where the want is most desperate, the want being a want of knowledge, there the demand is the least possible.

The original provision now made in most places within this district, to an extent that the population cannot be brought to make use of, originated wholly in the exertions of a few persons not seeking education for themselves or their own children, but forcing it, and almost imposing it, upon indifferent or even reluctant recipients. Religious and philanthropic motives had long since provided a grammar school in Dudley for the children of the better class of residents, and free schools in that and most of the adjoining parishes, adequate, probably, to the then recognized wants of a population which was a very scanty one in comparison with that now established there. The ordinary grammar school education has at all times within the memory of living persons been considered of little or no practical use. It is with difficulty that considerable iron-masters, coal-masters, and others who desire their sons to be admitted for the sake of the other branches of education, English, arithmetic, geometry and French (taught as an extra), can be persuaded to submit to the indispensable condition of their boys also learning a language so useless in their view as Latin is. With views prevailing like these as to the education of the middle class, it is only natural that the education in the free schools for the lower classes was of a very low description, and that the appointments of masters, mistresses, and servants should be, as all my informants assure me they were in most cases, opportunities for the exercise of the patronage of the trustees in favour of poor dependants with the most meagre acquirements, and generally found already to be incapable of success in any other walk in life, and in fact wholly untrained in the art of teaching which they undertook to practise.

The beginnings of popular education, in the sense of a practically useful education of the working classes, are remembered through-

out this district by numbers of living persons. At present the friendly feeling and kindly intercommunication and hearty co-operation of members of the Church of England and of the different dissenting communities which are to be found in Dudley are very striking to a stranger, and were more and more seen in the successive stages of my inquiry to be real and sincere. The explanation is, perhaps, to be found in the more common recognition of the fact that religious differences in this dense aggregation of people, working together indiscriminately in large numbers, imply little or no industrial, moral, or social difference in the individuals, and still more of the fact that the coarse immorality of the masses of the people requires the single-minded and energetic co-operation of all persons possessing any moral influence whatever to bring about any effective amelioration. Of all influences tending to this result it would seem to be the opinion of those best acquainted with the facts, that the efforts made for the extension of education have had the most effect in satisfying all its friends, that no church or sect in such a community as this can effect by its isolated efforts much good, and that it is only by the utmost efforts of all that any substantial general good can be effected. I found the most zealous members of the Church of England, and almost every clergyman, willing frankly to admit the fact that the first and most conspicuous and most strenuous efforts to educate and improve the morality of the poor had been made by members of dissenting communities, in a period when the organization of the Church of England was wholly insufficient for this purpose. This honourable distinction of the dissenters prevailed chiefly towards the end of the last and the beginning of the present century, when the parishes were usually too large and too populous to be administered to any useful purpose by one incumbent, or by an incumbent and curate. No goodwill or energy was adequate to so disproportionate a labour, and very naturally in many cases a task wholly hopeless was wholly abandoned. With the division of parishes into districts under the Church Buildings Acts, and the reduction of the labour of the cure more nearly to the capacities of the persons appointed for its performance began the efficient participation of the clergy and members of the Church of England in the business of practical popular education, and it is now quite as frankly admitted by dissenters in this district that the schools of the Church of England, and the exertions of its clergy, extend beneficially to the greater mass of the population, as it is admitted by the members of the Established Church that the merit of the first and most arduous and hopeless efforts and the earliest and greatest sacrifices is due to the dissenters. The only exception to this friendly concurrence is found in the Roman Catholic body, which here includes no gentry nor persons of the middle rank, but consists wholly of the lowest class of labourers, very few of whom are permanent residents, and whom their clergy, with few exceptions, of which the late priest, Mr. Moore, was a very worthy one, keep jealously separate from all efforts in which the other religious bodies take, as religious communities,

any part. The repulsion appears to be reciprocal, for the other parties display very little of that tolerance towards the Roman Catholics that otherwise so honourably distinguishes the conduct both of ministers and flocks towards one another. The Roman Catholic labourers very generally perform the very rudest part in all labours in which they are engaged. They work together, resort to the same quarter, the worst in the town, and to the same places of amusement, and generally, whether for good or ill, neither much influence nor are influenced by the workpeople of other creeds, while all these are mingled in their dwellings, in their work, and in their amusements, without distinction of creed. Under the circumstances of the Roman Catholic population resorting to Dudley it was scarcely possible to effect much for the school education for their children. A Roman Catholic school at Sedgley is in a somewhat better condition; but the difficulty found in Dudley in efficiently educating the Roman Catholic population is nearly the same here.

Undoubtedly the chief efforts are made and the best successes in the extension of popular education in this district are obtained by the instrumentality of ministers of the Church of England and of various dissenting bodies. Even in the case of the very successful exertions of Sir Horace St. Paul at Tipton and of the non-denominational schools established by him, he has the hearty and active support and assistance of ministers of the Church of England and of other denominations. But the efforts of the clergy are chiefly successful through the pecuniary and moral support they obtain from their laity. All persons long acquainted with this district testify to the rapid development of opinion in the last few years in favour of popular education. The fact is known to all employers of labour in this district that school education does nothing to develope either the strength or the skill (such as is here required) of their labourers, but rather seriously interferes with those habits which, unless early acquired, are never obtained, and which are an indispensable condition of any person engaging in some of these pursuits. A boy of seven is quite efficient in opening and shutting the doors by which the draught of air in pits is regulated, and in performing that labour he sees and habituates himself to all the operations in the pit to which, with advancing age and strength, he advances, as his body develops itself, by an operation as it were of nature. Many pit-masters complain that now that children under twelve are prevented from working in pits there will never again be a good pitman, for boys kept out of the pit till that age will acquire habits wholly incompatible with the adoption of such an occupation while other occupations are open to them, and the employer will every year be more and more compelled to rely on the labour only of those who have found that they cannot live by other occupations,—the most unsteady, incapable, and reckless of the labouring class. Nevertheless, the majority even of pitmasters now recognize the interest which society at least has, and the children themselves have, in a better education, and many of the more educated or benevolent

employers contribute liberally to the support of day schools for the young and of evening schools for their older labourers. Some even, as the Messrs. Bagnell of West Bromwich, and the Messrs. Chance of Birmingham, both out of my district, and the British Iron Company at Corngreaves (within my district), as well as others whom I shall have to refer to in my report on the Potteries, have, at great cost, established and supported schools which have deservedly the highest reputation for efficiency. It is asserted by some employers—as by the Messrs. Hingley, chainmakers at Cradley—that although the bodily strength and manual skill of their workpeople are not improved by school education, still that such strength and skill as their workpeople possess is generally made more available to their employers by the greater manageableness and docility of those who have submitted in any degree to the discipline involved in any kind of schooling, and whereas any new experiment or alteration to be made brings out the dogged qualities of the ruder labourers, it invariably displays the greater adaptability of the powers, such as they are, of the workmen who can read, and their greater readiness to submit to their employers' judgment, and this makes labourers who are inferior in some single manual skill or bodily power equal or superior to their betters in these respects, where the operations of the workshop require from time to time a change of practice. This is most seen where the business is of the more miscellaneous character; but in the large establishments of such employers as those mentioned as having separate schools, combining, as such establishments do, a variety of operations, both industrial and commercial, a supply of better educated servants is indispensable, and these are with very great difficulty, and generally not at all, to be obtained within the district. Evening schools have been found to fit many young workmen, by providing them with very modest qualifications in reading and writing and arithmetic, to fill situations on which the whole prosperity of a business may depend, such as those at the weighing machine, of warehousemen, and even of clerks,—all situations for which it is much more difficult to find qualified candidates at hand or to allure them to the spot than it is to obtain the service of mere labourers. In this respect the more important employers in this district are less jealous of the acquisition by their labourers' children of qualifications which fit them for employment of a higher kind than the farmers are in the agricultural parts of the country, who find that an educated labourer's child is lost to the parish which has been at the cost of his education, and drawn away to occupations in the towns in which the farmers feel that they have no direct concern.*

* *Note.*—Lord Hatherton, a great proprietor in this county, informed me that this objection of his tenants was the chief difficulty that he encountered in his enlightened efforts to educate his people. His lordship appeared himself to think that as a merely agricultural question the education of the boys might tend to deprive the land of some of its supply of labour; but he considered that by every boy made capable of a higher employment, not only the boy himself and his friends and employer, but also the whole country gains.

But although a tolerance of popular education, at least as a thing to be submitted to, has been begotten in the mass of the most prejudiced employers, and a sincere, and in many cases an active and sacrificing sympathy now exists in the bulk of the more educated and enlightened of the middle and higher classes in this district, vigorously maintained and turned to practical account by the ministers of religion of all denominations, and by some active members of the laity, at the head of whom, by his large expenditure of money and devotion of his own time and labours, stands Sir Horace St. Paul, and an effective "demand" may now be said to exist for schools in this district, still this demand is as yet, to a great extent, a factitious one, and consists not in the general sense of their wants entertained by those whose wants are to be relieved, but is still too much like the demand created by charitable institutions for the objects they distribute, and depends on the contributions and sacrifices of the friends of the labourers and not on the efforts and payments of the labourers themselves. Nor would the present state of popular education, such as it is, in this district ever have been attained but by extrinsic aid. The great desideratum of efficient teachers could in no known way have been supplied from within the district itself. The operations of the National, the Wesleyan, and the British School Societies provided such a supply of teachers as to make it possible to maintain schools with any effect; above all, to show such results in the education of children as to interest the parents sufficiently in the object to induce them to pay for it, so as to make the schools in a greater or less degree self-supporting. It is true that one or two instances are remembered of men and women who attracted considerable numbers of scholars to their schools, and gave them what is reported to have been a good useful education,—as, for example, the late Mr. Pitchfork and his daughter, who long maintained a successful school in connexion with an Independant chapel in Dudley, and whom the masters of Baylis's charity very wisely engaged in their establishment, which afforded a greatly enlarged sphere for their abilities and zeal, and where, indeed, they were instrumental in raising this institution to a high rank in its class, and in sending forth many pupils of which their townsmen are proud. Still the great proportion of the children attracted to their schools were the children of people above the class of labourers, and the really labouring class were either admitted free or at such a rate as to make the greater part of their education a charity. And still the number of capable teachers was wholly inadequate to the supply of the want, and without such teachers no success, even in mere attendance at a school, can be attained. It is a subject of wonder how people so destitute of education as labouring parents commonly are can be such just judges as they also commonly are of the effective qualifications of a teacher. Good school buildings and the apparatus of tuition are found for years to be practically useless and deserted, when, if a master chance to be appointed who understands his work, a few weeks suffices to make the fact known,

and his school is soon filled, and perhaps found inadequate to the demand of the neighbourhood, and a separate girls' school or infant school is soon found to be necessary. Amongst numerous instances of such effects of the importation of a good schoolmaster, I may mention the case of the Old Hall school at Tipton. When Mr. Smith (a certificated teacher, educated at Spon Lane school), about two years ago took charge of this school the immediate neighbourhood was without the means of education. The children below the age for employment in the pits were, in the fine weather, in the streets, and in bad weather crowding and rendering more uncomfortable the very uncomfortable dwellings in which the population here is lodged. He began with three pupils, obtained in the first week, and observed from the first the rule of maintaining exact order and ready and active attention as the first necessity, and after that as much kindness to the children as is compatible with a habit of entire obedience. In his second week he had twelve pupils. In about fifteen months the number of pupils, boys and girls (the school being as yet a mixed school), was 180, almost the whole being brought from the streets into the schools; but at this time and subsequently he had in the school some five or six boys who had proved too refractory in other schools, and had been expelled from them, but have proved, under his firm but kindly influence, some of his best pupils. At this stage a strike of the colliers broke out, and was obstinately maintained for about six months, during which they and their families suffered severely, were reduced to destitution, and brought into debt, and from the effects of which they had not recovered at the time of my inquiry. The school lost forty pupils during this depression, but such had now become the desire of the children to remain at school, and of their parents to keep them there, that the greater number remained during a time when the provision of the school fees must have encroached, in most of the colliers' families, on the very necessities of life. Many availed themselves of the liberty, during this period allowed to them, of going into debt for the fees for many weeks, and were still, at the time of my inquiry, paying the debt off by instalments, and the school was again filled, and was about to be divided into two separate schools for boys and girls respectively, for the latter of which a new school-house was in contemplation, with a certain prospect, by continuance of the like discipline, of filling both. Music, which is very well practised in this school, was found, as in many others that I visited, a great attraction, and while the singing was going on I observed at least a dozen of the children at large in the streets make up to the door of the school and wait and listen there attentively till it ceased. Mr. Smith, as other successful teachers in this district have done, found that the great agency for filling the school was the urgency of the children themselves, whose influence with the parents was much more to be relied on than the convictions of the parents, and he insists that the thorough order preserved in his school is its chief attraction; that without it children

will not be drawn to it, but with it will compel their mothers to let them go; while the cleanliness and neatness of dress insisted on forms a very sensible ground of distinction between those who attend and those who do not attend school for the raising the self-respect of the school children and their families, and begetting a wholesome jealousy and emulation in others, whom it gradually influences and attracts to the school.

Instances of the rapid effects of the presence of a trained teacher in bringing a whole infantine population from the streets into the school are every day more numerous as the supply of trained teachers is more sufficient. The instances seem to be independent of all other facts but the efficiency of the teacher; they are equally to be found in the schools of all the different religious denominations; they are found applicable equally to free schools, although it must be observed of free schools, that the appointment of efficient masters and teachers is comparatively rare. But as these instances are equally found in both my districts, I will mention a few of the most remarkable of them that came within my observation as well in the one as in the other.

At ——— School, Dudley, the girls' school was very ill attended while under an inefficient mistress; but between September 1858, when the present certificated teacher was appointed, the school has not only filled, but above twenty pupils had already, in the following month of November, been declined for want of sufficient accommodation.

At ——— Infant School, a trained teacher succeeded in August 1858 a mistress who had had no training, and under whom the attendance had never reached 60. The parents, who judge of the tuition chiefly by the power of the children to read, complained that they did not get on. They are now satisfied in this respect, and the attendance now (April 1859) rarely falls below 80, the average being 82; and every week there is an addition of two or three new pupils.

At ——— School, Mr. A., eleven years ago, was appointed master, the school being then in a very low condition, with an average of 30 scholars attending very irregularly. Mr. A.'s efforts were systematically confined to the object of imparting a very plain unpretentious education, such as children of a very early age,—like those attending his school—could attain to, and this was thoroughly appreciated by the parents in the neighbourhood. In nine months the number of his scholars was raised to an average of 80, and in three years to an average of 100, the extreme number admissible. Mr. A. was then promoted to another appointment, as to which I have made a more detailed report elsewhere. Another master, without proper qualifications, having been appointed to his place in the British school, the attendance of the school declined almost as rapidly under bad management as it had before advanced under good management, and in three years it was again reduced to 30. The trustees hereupon appointed another master trained at

Homerton School, who has acted on the like plan as Mr. A.,—a very plain teaching thoroughly carried out,—and he has hitherto had a similar success. He began his work in this school on September 7, 1857, with 25 boys present. His first month's average ran to $34\frac{1}{3}$. His average for the whole of 1858 was 55. For the first three months of 1859 it was 67; and from March to the 2d of May, when I obtained the numbers, it was 75. The income from fees was at first 10*l.* to 11*l.* a year; in 1858 it was above 26*l.*; and the rate in May was 34*l.* or 35*l.*

At ——— Infant School, Newcastle-under-Lyme, a trained teacher, began in 1849, with 40 pupils, not one of whom could write. The school, which is still denominated an Infant School, was then, as since, open to girls of any age; but it suffers by its name, which leads to the parents taking away their girls at early ages, when they could still avail themselves much longer and to a much greater extent of the advantages afforded by this excellent school. The school has likewise suffered by the competition of several schools that have lately been established or much improved in the neighbourhood. The average attendance now is 210, and the scholars afford, by their discipline, cleanliness, order, and cheerfulness, one of the most gratifying sights I met with in the course of my inquiry. Their reading was the most intelligent that I witnessed in girls of the like ages, and the singing was the best I had heard in any school. The school has received no external aid, and has been advanced solely by the sense that the neighbours have of the really good education and excellent habits to be gotten there. As the quality of the education has improved, the rate of the fees has been advanced from $1\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* to 2*d.* and 3*d.*, which has not been found to be prejudicial to the attendance, but rather the reverse, the advantages being said to be more highly appreciated with the rise of price.

At the Wesleyan School at ———, the master, one of those who insist on the necessity of a very plain and simple education, thoroughly carried out for the short period that the pupils commonly remain at school, averaging in his school only about two years, began in the old school-house with 80 scholars, which rose to about 90, as great a number as it could conveniently accommodate, and on the opening of the new school in 1850, he began with 100, which has regularly increased to its present number, 240, an infant school in the interval having been started, which drafted off 120 scholars.

These are a few examples, out of many, chosen wholly from parts of my districts where the neighbouring population is in a low state, and where it would be least probable that they would readily appreciate the qualities of a good teacher. I regard the many other examples which I could adduce of the success of good teachers in more opulent and decent neighbourhoods as less to the purpose, and therefore abstain from the swelling of this report by describing them.

In all these instances of successful establishment and maintenance of a school, the children themselves seem, after the teachers

to exert at the present time the greatest influence. They seem, under a good teacher who keeps the school alive by variety of occupation, to feel bodily and morally the comfort of the school, where they usually show in their countenances as lively a pleasure as when on their way home or at play. I never yet asked a child whether it went to school (a fact which in this district, however, can always be seen by the state of the clothes and of the person of the child), but it gave its answer (if it went to a good school) with evident pride and satisfaction. This pride and satisfaction is not in a less degree betrayed by the manner of their mothers, who almost openly express their sense of the inferiority of neighbours who do not send their children to school. The fathers are generally too much out of sight, in the pit, quarry, or workshop, to allow the observer to see so well how they are affected by their children's attendance at school; but all the indications manifest are that their feelings, though less vivacious than those of the mothers, are always those of satisfaction at the mere fact of their children going to school, and of very positive pride when their children obtain the credit and the distinctions of good conduct there.

In such facts may be perceived what I believe to be the true statement of the doctrine of demand and supply in education. By no sudden process of self-development has any community ever been known to start from ignorance to knowledge—from brutality to civility. All such improvement as yet known has been at the first stage imported from other and more refined communities, but has been continued and developed according to the quality of the stock on which it was ingrafted, and the more or less favourable circumstances by which it was afterwards affected. So it appears now visibly under the eyes of an observer in this district. The working population has shown no inborn or spontaneous power of self-improvement. On the contrary, there is every reason to believe that in Dudley, when Sir Robert Newdegate rode thither to induce the artizans established there to undertake the contracts for muskets theretofore supplied to our army by the Dutch, those artizans were generally a much more skilful, intelligent, and orderly population than they were a century later, when this population was chiefly a community of small arm makers, nailers, and light iron workers; and every person who remembers the state of this population, and compares it with the present, testifies to the greater intelligence, and decency, and sobriety of the nailers and light workers, and the chastity and morality of the females, and the subsequent deterioration of the population, as operations have become large and work heavy, and the manual skill and contrivance of the workmen has been comparatively less in request.* No effort made by the members of

* Mr. Cornelius Cartwright, an aged gentleman, a most respected magistrate of the counties of Worcester and Stafford, resident in Dudley for nearly eighty years, gave me the most exact and complete information on the state of the population during the period of his observation. The Rev. Mr. Lewis, the excellent and benevolent rector of Sedgeley, whose experience is nearly as extensive in range and time (an interesting paper by whom I add in the Appendix), gave me exactly corresponding information, which has been confirmed by many other persons of more limited experience.

this class has been made with the object of raising its own position in intelligence or morality. The history of its incessant strikes is only a history of miseries resolutely endured and savagely inflicted, in which the only successes have been an occasional rise in wages for a comparatively small number, but in which the result has more usually been to drive away or destroy, one after another, all the lighter employments which could possibly be carried on elsewhere, and as to such heavy work as must of necessity be performed where the raw material abounds, to introduce substitutes for skill, manual labour, and human force, which have permanently interfered to prevent the rise of the price of labour which the natural extension of its demand would have otherwise certainly brought about. All the influences which in this district appear to have really ameliorated the condition of the working people have had their origin in the benevolence and superior intelligence of the higher classes, and most commonly have been produced by efforts first made elsewhere, and without particular reference to this neighbourhood, or especially to this class of people. Free schools, Sunday schools, evening schools, have all, in their origin, been urged on the acceptance of this class by the classes above them. Benefit societies and savings' banks have been recommended in the same way with even less effect. The multiplication of churches and chapels has been the work of the higher classes almost entirely; and the day schools for the working classes, which are now at length effecting a visible and incontestible improvement in the old as well as the young, are wholly to be attributed to efforts originating at a distance, and in enlightened views as to the moral wants of the community, in which the Legislature and Government of the country has had a large share, but to which, however, the higher classes in this district originally, and for a long continuance of time, contributed but little, if they contributed at all.

Confining my remarks to popular schools in this district, it appears that these have been, in their origin, always a boon conferred on the working class by their better informed neighbours, aided largely by the assistance of the great educational societies and the Government grants and control. But the greatest boon of all, without which the rest must have remained almost without effect, has been the creation of a class of teachers trained systematically to their work, and performing it as yet under such control and the operation of such motives as tend to make the benefit manifest to the dull comprehensions of a population sunk in ignorance. Beginning with a public opinion which, so far from forming a basis for a demand for teachers, consisted, in truth, of a contempt for their delicate vocation, these teachers have already nearly succeeded, chiefly during the last ten or twelve years, in eradicating all prejudices in the labouring class opposed to education, and have bred in considerable numbers of young men and women of this class such strong convictions of the benefits and necessities of education for the improvement of their own and their fellows' condition, that these may now be counted by hundreds in this district, giving

zealous and intelligent assistance to every educational and moral movement, employing an amount of time and energy difficult to conceive in the management of evening and Sunday schools, in the arrangements of temperance, and reading and visiting societies, and indeed in every common undertaking for the improvement of their own class.

So far as this interest has been generally exerted within the body itself of the labouring class, it is coincident with a demand for an education, the standard of which is constantly rising. It is agreed on all hands that wherever a mother has received a little education, she is always solicitous to obtain as much as possible of the like benefit for all her children. The fact is nearly as general as regards working men, and it is already observed of the younger married people who have the power to read for their own amusement or instruction, that it is extremely rare to find them, however poorly off, indifferent about the schooling of their children, or unwilling to pay the whole of its cost. Almost every educated child is the sure parent of children to be educated, and is likely to seek such education, though it be costly, and trench upon his command of comforts or even necessaries, and even to value an education for his children obtained by his own efforts more highly than one obtained from the charity of others. What is almost as promising a fact as the actual education of adult people or their manifest pride in their own or their children's education is, the sense of shame of their ignorance that is rapidly developed in older people by the presence of children and young people about them displaying the power of reading. Education has made but little progress, indeed, in the district of Lower Gornall, where the men are all pitmen or quarriers, and the women, boys, and girls all nailors or small chain makers, living in a state of great independence, in houses built and owned by themselves, on land granted by Lord Ward on terms of a nominal rent, but subject to be destroyed whenever the land is taken for mining purposes. Scarcely two adjoining houses face the same way. Each has its rotten cinder path, and almost as much space is occupied by those innumerable paths, sloughs, and puddles, as by the occupied ground. In three days spent amongst them, I found no adult of this class who could write; and although some professed to be able to read a little, in each case where I examined the parties the pretension proved false. Mr. Rooker, the incumbent, on his appointment attacked this population with all arms, spiritual and moral, in the spirit of a missionary, adopted a rough, strong style of preaching and admonition in plain words, and encouragement by plain deeds such as this population very readily understood. The rapid consequence was, that his church, which before was nearly deserted, was soon full of his rude parishioners, and I myself attending one rainy evening found it necessary to stand near the door for want of room. His curate, Mr. Jones, had told me to observe that all the people affected to find their places in the books furnished to them, and to read

the hymns given out, and I found, as he had told me, that they did so, every one or every pair having a book, with the air of persons familiar with its use, turning over several pages and resting at one at which they made a semblance of following the words and of accompanying the singing; but a full half of these books were held upside down, and within my observation no one was open at the right place, except where some younger person taught to read in the school was by to find it. Subsequently in the week I found some of these pretended readers still falsely asserting that they could read a little, but most of them on further question admitting their inability, and some of them more or less candidly or even bitterly regretting it. But I found no one of these who did not declare his conviction that it was his duty to obtain for his children the benefit of which he felt the want in himself, and the disgrace involved in his deficiency.

This progress of opinion and independent action amongst the labouring class is undeniable, but it is far from being either so general or so well secured for the future as to justify any expectation that it could be carried on to its desired ends without a continuance of the extrinsic aids hitherto supplied from other sources for the period necessary to bring up one whole generation of educated work-people. Nowhere in either of my districts have I found even the most successful school wholly maintained by the school fees. Nowhere, as yet, would the payments that could be obtained from the labouring class maintain a competent teaching staff. If left to the demand, now undoubtedly to some extent existing, of the labouring class for the education of their children, the present schools must soon fall into decay, and the present teachers be driven to other occupations. And yet the present supply of trained masters and teachers, upon which the present existence and the future extension of this demand almost entirely depend, is wholly inadequate to the complete education of the present generation of working people's children. The good schools, the capable teachers who can make themselves and their work approved by the poor people about them, are not to be found everywhere, are not to be found in any just proportion to the numbers of people to be taught. To supply the existing deficiency, and to continue the existing agency in operation till one generation of youth has received such a tincture of education as may make it a recognized shame to be brought home to every parent who neglects his child's schooling, is a task which must still be performed by the middle and higher classes, and for which the assistance of the State appears for so long at least to be indispensable. For private charity, unorganized in its administration, great and noble as have been its works in this department, and which was perhaps never idle in this business, was never adequate to its full performance, was never methodical or systematic enough to be sensibly operative upon the mass of the population. It was never on the whole so universally, or so largely, or so effectually, contributory to education as it is

now—encouraged, allured, and urged by the State and its clerical ministers to provide by subscription of money and by co-operation in every available way for this universally admitted necessity.

Still what has been done by the upper classes for the education of the lower, has in such districts as this been so manifest and so effective that it is clear and indisputable that the same means which have brought it from nothing to so great a development would, if continued undiminished in amount and efficiency, develop it to some indefinitely greater extent. The continuance of the same effort would even in every successive stage have an increasing effect, by the constant increase of the numbers of those who would have a practical experience in themselves of the benefits of education and appreciation of it for their children, and we may reasonably infer that the necessary time during which the effort must still be made is shortening in more than in a simple proportion, and in an accumulating ratio as it is continued, so that for every year that it is now sustained, the work of many former years is achieved.

Absence of subsidiary Efforts.

But although so predominating a part in the provision of education for the working classes has been taken by the middle and higher classes, it cannot be truly said of the more wealthy classes in this district that they have on the whole borne a part in this improvement at all proportionate to their opportunities and powers. The early efforts of non-conformists and dissenting teachers have been referred to. The present labours of the ministers of religion constitute the chief means of establishing and maintaining popular schools, and some of them are very energetic in their office, and successful in their efforts; but their labour at the best is bounded by the necessity of removing the grossest ignorance. The singular self-devotion of Sir Horace St. Paul to the improvement of the people of Tipton and the neighbourhood superadds to the work of educating the young the purpose of counteracting or eradicating some of the grosser vices of their elders, especially such as grow out of and accompany the abuse of intoxicating liquors; but it does not directly aim at carrying education and its enjoyments any higher. The munificence of the great landlord, Lord Ward, in granting land for sites of schools, and contributing largely to the building of schools, indeed supplies a large means of education. The provision of school-room has been liberal, and in some places is more than ample. The provision of teachers of a better quality is increasing. But the power of reading once attained, nothing more is systematically sought in this district than to turn it to its merely industrial account. Nothing is done to make it a pleasant and honourable habit.

Although the district is itself one of the most interesting in the world, with a remarkable flora and fauna, and the richest

field of geological exploration, with fossils of the highest interest to be found at the very surface, yet with wealth widely spread, with a great want of intellectual occupation, no society exists for the promotion of any of the branches of natural history. It is true that a collection of fossils, said to be very rich and valuable, was made and exhibited at the time of the visit of the geological section of the British Association to Dudley Castle some years ago. But it has since been packed in barrels, and is deposited out of reach in some waste place in an old nail warehouse. A literary society nominally exists, being, in fact, nothing but a very ill supplied news-room, frequented by a few clerks and tradesmen of an evening. The committee invite lecturers to deliver discourses, which while I was there were wholly of a literary character—"On the Character of Bunyan," "On the Modern City of Rome," and the like subjects,—and were attended wholly by persons above the reach of any arrangements practically intended for the education of the working classes as they are to be found in this district. Theatrical amusements are discountenanced by the most influential people in the town, who frequent Birmingham for their own amusement and recreation, and are therefore only provided in Dudley in the worst of all possible places—the gaudy, flaming, drinking shops. A Garrick Club, too, for amateur performances, is kept up as a kind of protest and a defiance to the more severe ruling orders. Practically, the neglect by the wealthier classes of habitual residents of the pursuits which should follow upon the acquisition of knowledge deprives the growing up children of the working classes of the best moral and intellectual enjoyments, the proper rewards of their application at school, and must be looked upon as a great practical discouragement of that school education to which they contribute so liberally but so lazily by their names and purses.

The Economical Rewards of Education.

Many of the more intelligent employers in this district have joined in a declaration made by others of the same class, and by influential noblemen and gentry in this and the adjoining counties, that they will in the engagement of services give the preference to children who have given a certain amount of attendance at school.

Practically, so far as I can find, this declaration is without effect, as all similar undertakings must be where the demand for youthful labour is such as to exceed the supply, and where the most intelligent labour is of considerable value. When an educated and an uneducated boy present themselves for employment, it might have some exemplary effect if the educated boy was engaged and the uneducated one rejected. But where the educated children are wholly inadequate to supply the wants of the employer, the uneducated must be employed too; and when these do the work of the employer quite as well as the educated they must have the same wages. This factitious part of this profession

of the employers appears to be wholly without effect in their establishments, as it is, so far as I can judge, on the minds of the children or of their parents.

But so far as boys and girls who can read, or write, or cypher are alone fitted for some employments, such boys and girls of course get ready employment and promotion in departments from which the unschooled young are necessarily shut out. This advantage, however, is wholly independent of this declaration of the employers, and would equally exist with or without it. Fortunately the means of rewarding proficiency in this natural manner appears to be inexhaustible. The mode of conducting even very large businesses in this district is rude in comparison with that of any places I am acquainted with where education is better diffused. Clerks and book-keepers, though very highly paid, are scarce and not efficient, and rude practices of counting and reckoning survive here that are wholly extinct in places where the familiarity with the operations of the counting-house is greater. For a long time to come there will be in all branches of the operations carried on here abundant employment and reward for all youths who fit themselves for it. When this fails, if ever it do, it will still be found that boys so accomplished have a career in other seats of active industry, and even now it is a frequent subject of complaint that the bringing of boys so forward as some of the masters do in the National and other inspected schools, is only a way to deprive the neighbourhood eventually of their services, and to get them employment in Lancashire, or at Birmingham, or in the metropolis. One important master nailor stated to me, as the result of his experience, that education was only a means of depriving the neighbourhood of all its best and brightest youths, and when he was obliged to admit that the operation was still beneficial to the youths themselves and to those parts of the country where they were profitably employed, he said, "But why then should *they* have the benefit at our expense?"

Teachers more wanting than Schools.

In one respect the extrinsic aids required must be diminishing, namely, for the provision of school buildings, which in even this densely populated district greatly exceeds the attendance, although in places where the teacher is efficient even the present school-room will always be found insufficient. Still the want, as will be seen by my returns, is less of school-room than of trained teachers, and this appears to be the want which at present cannot be supplied on the spot, and can only be supplied with public assistance. By this supply it is to be hoped that many excellent free-school buildings and endowments may be made of greater common benefit than they can now be; when the masters and teachers are neither trained to their work, nor under the influence of any such control or inspection, or rivalry or public opinion, as would keep the teachers up to their work according to the measure of such abilities as they do possess.

Some Drawbacks as to trained Teachers.

A fact which must strike any inquirer in this district, and if possible still more in the Potteries, is the disfavour frequently expressed by sincere and active friends of popular education towards the teachers trained in the establishments of the great educational societies. In the free schools in this district their introduction has hitherto been opposed almost universally, and the slow introduction of them into the National schools is owing quite as much to this disfavour as to the relative fewness of their numbers in comparison with the schools established. It appeared to me to be plainly my duty to ascertain, if possible, whether there be any grounds for the objection so frequently expressed, and if so, the nature of those grounds. In my observations on this topic I will anticipate my remarks on the Pottery district, to which indeed, of the two, they are the most applicable.

Two expressions are commonly given to the objections entertained to trained and certificated teachers, and they both appear to refer to one and the same thing, according as it is viewed in relation to the children to be educated, or in relation to the patrons and managers of the schools. It is said that such teachers are too commonly above their work, which they despise, priding themselves on their accomplishments, for which the school gives them no proper scope, and which they seek to display in the tuition of a few selected scholars, to whom they give a disproportionate attention to the prejudice of the other scholars and the general interest of the school confided to their charge. It is also said that their conceit is too often such as to make them reject the advice and assistance of the managers of the school, and indispose its patrons and friends to take a due part in its promotion and management.

I am bound to admit, that with all the indisputable benefits secured by the provision of trained teachers, I have also seen very many instances in which there is a just ground for both forms of this objection to them.

As to the imputation that they too often consider themselves above their duty, this is almost as often to be inferred from their own complaints as from the assertions of those who urge it as an objection against them. The fact appears, indeed, to be, that in these two districts the work of education is really such as to render the accomplishments of a highly instructed teacher for the most part unavailable. Where, as is the case here, and still more in the Potteries, the children at school at eight or nine years of age are the few exceptions to the general practice of setting children to work at an earlier age, it is wholly impossible to give to such children more than a mere groundwork of plain reading, a still less portion of practice in writing, and yet less of practice in the elementary rules of arithmetic. Any considerable development of either of these elementary branches of education is out of the question, and nothing is possible beyond a bare entry

upon the rudiments, the grinding of which into the pupils by sheer force of practice is the most repulsive part of the task of education. Accordingly the first address made to a visitor by a master or mistress who feels himself fitted for higher work is almost always an expression of dissatisfaction with the work in which the labour is incessant, the result so small, and the possible credit to be gained so little.

In almost every case where such complaints were made I have been satisfied that the teacher was capable of higher work than he was by the circumstances of the district called upon to perform. In such a case dissatisfaction is natural, and it is not to be wondered at that a change of situation is frequently sought, in the hope that it will afford a satisfactory field for the employment of a class of accomplished teachers.

The fact which is most to be lamented is, that what might be well taught to children of the age of those who commonly attend the schools of this district, is taught with less interest and determination than it might be. Mere reading, well acquired at a very early age, would be of infinite value. Nothing that a child can acquire so effectually strikes its ignorant parents and relations and the lodgers in the same house as its power of reading intelligibly some simple book or paper, nothing that the child can learn carries so much solid satisfaction to its home, or is so sure to induce its friends to strain a point to give it an opportunity of further schooling. A mother's vanity may be casually more excited by the display of writing, which she can neither understand nor appreciate, and here and there an ignorant father is pleased at some display of ability to reckon the combination of the measures of his own work or wages; but no such domestic satisfaction and constant enjoyment and well-grounded pride or hope is to be got from any other accomplishment of a young child as from its power of clear and articulate reading. This power, too, is one which, well attained, is least likely of all to lie idle, it is called into use incessantly, even by illiterate friends and associates, is at all times the most easy of gratification, and the means by which all other subjects of curiosity may be pursued. It is plain that where at best but a little can be done at all, this should on that account be, if possible, all the better done. But at the earliest stages this involves the greatest of all drudgeries to a teacher who is conscious of an ability for higher things. I am compelled to say that this essential accomplishment is in this district unduly neglected, and that this neglect is too often in proportion to the higher pretensions of the teacher. Accordingly it is common to find in really well-conducted and well-officered schools the reading of the boys very inferior in clearness and articulation, if not in fluency, to that of the girls of the same age, the female teachers being generally less unwilling to drudge at this work and less ambitious of displaying high attainments. It is even common to find boys and girls at a dame's school, of which the mistress can do nothing else than read, read better, allowance being made

for a provincial pronunciation, than children of the same age commonly do at the schools where more is taught, but with a less exclusive attention to this great essential in a system of education which must, when the utmost is done, still remain a very imperfect one.

I must state my conviction that it would be a great benefit to districts like those of the black country and the Potteries if a set of teachers could be trained for them with all the other school habits now recognized as indispensable, but with a more exclusive view to the imparting of merely rudimentary instruction, whose success in realizing this humble pretension should be the object of their ambition, and be held to entitle them to employment and proportionate reward, no less than that of others who succeed in the teaching of more advanced and recondite studies, where these are more properly in place.

The other form of expression for this objection is partly accounted for and disposed of in the foregoing remarks. But so far as it involves only the impression which teachers of high pretensions have made upon very many respectable friends of popular education, including many ministers of the Church of England and of other religious denominations, placed in the situation of managers of schools, and who by their exertions can obtain a great amount of pecuniary and moral support to the schools, and greatly influence the parents and friends of the children whom it is desirable to educate, it is necessary to add a few more special observations.

In the first place, it is generally to be remarked at the very first aspect of a school under the control of a capable master, when he is protected by the inspection of the Committee of the Privy Council, that the master and teachers have a self-dependent or independent bearing not generally to be seen in masters and teachers who depend more exclusively on the favour of the school managers and the good report of neighbouring persons of influence. The latter class of teachers are certainly more generally deferential in their manner, often carrying respectfulness to abjectness and servility, an extreme very rarely observable in those teachers who hold in their own training and in the records of the school under their charge their own protection, and their credentials for continued and advancing employment. A trained teacher knows by the effect on himself of his own training the value of the discipline he enforces, he feels that he will be supported in its enforcement by a powerful authority and enlightened opinion, and he is unwilling to allow of any interference with it even by the most respected clergyman or minister or the most important gentleman or most influential lady of the neighbourhood. His stiffness and the grounds for it are not always understood or appreciated, and it is sometimes taken as a personal slight by those who think themselves entitled to influence or direct the management of his school. Perhaps it is not unjust to managers generally to say that, in most cases of complaint against trained teachers for want of sub-

missiveness in those matters, it has appeared to me that, as to the occasion and substantial grounds of complaint, the teacher has been right and the complainant wrong, as might be expected in a dispute where one person stands on his professional knowledge, and the other is but an amateur, however intelligent. On the other hand, I must confess that the manner and bearing of some very good masters, and here and there of a good mistress or teacher, are, especially when fresh from the training school, unnecessarily self-assertive and not unfrequently conceited and presumptuous. But these are common faults of aspiring and successful youth, which seem generally to be cured by time, and to be rarely imputable to men or women teachers after a few years' experience in their vocation.

It is also to be allowed, in justice to the class of trained teachers, that the complaint thus made against them is least countenanced by the most educated of the clergy, gentry, or employers, who are generally, in proportion to their own accomplishments, the more desirous of securing teachers of high qualifications, and the more tolerant of their pretensions. I have not met any clergyman or gentleman of very high attainments who has countenanced this complaint, and I have not met one such person interested in popular education who did not insist on obtaining and persist in supporting the teachers of the highest qualifications, independently of any pretension or conceit that in some cases accompanied their merits.

Another consideration must be mentioned in favour of highly-trained teachers, even when their accomplishments are most manifestly out of place in the day schools to which they are appointed. There is no influence so effective as that of these very same teachers in establishing evening schools, which are of vast importance in these districts, as bringing within the reach of education those who have passed the age at which they could be at any day school. Vast numbers, as my statistical returns show, of young men attend these evening schools, all of whom are sensible of their want of more education, and many of whom are urged by strong ambition and high and sometimes very generous motives. They adopt courses of study often so ambitious as to be necessarily disappointing; but more generally the course they take is one which tends to a practical end and to real improvement. Numbers work with extraordinary resolution, considering their heavy daily labour, and with proportionable effect, to fit themselves for more easy, or better remunerated, or more respectable employment; and all, without exception, avoid, while occupied, either at school or at home, the demoralizing influences which so disastrously affect boys, girls, men, and women in this district who have time on their hands unemployed and money to spend. The earnestness, for the most part, displayed in these evening schools, the more advanced years of the pupils, often mature men and fathers of families, the natural abilities of some, the steady ambition of others, and even the extravagant aspirations of a few, afford a field for the exertions

of a teacher conscious of his powers more congenial to him than the drudgery of a school where his scholars leave him at seven or eight years of age, still unconscious of the benefits they have received and unthankful for them. It is a coincidence to be noted, that some of the masters who have been most complained of for being above their work in their day schools are amongst the most active and successful promoters, both as originators and as teachers, of the education of the working classes in evening schools, which in many thousands of cases supply the deficiencies of the previous school education, or afford for the first time in later life an education wholly neglected in childhood.

On this branch of complaint against trained teachers I am inclined to the conclusion that, so far as it is founded in fact, the fault is usually cured by a few years' experience, and that it will gradually disappear altogether as the accomplishments on which they now pride themselves cease to be remarkable by becoming more common. And on the other hand, a good deal of the irritation at their superiority or assumption of superiority will be got rid of as the middle and upper classes themselves acquire the accomplishments which would enable them to view such pretensions with more equanimity, or indeed with the amusement which it affords to persons with a ground for satisfaction with their own attainments.

On the whole my conclusion, formed with all the deliberation that my opportunities have allowed of, is, that no objection applies to trained teachers as a class but one, that they are too few for the wants of the country, and that no other necessity is so urgent in the interests of the whole community as that of an adequate supply of them in the least time that is sufficient for the purpose. This being once effected, I am satisfied that parents will everywhere seek for their children an education which they will then certainly approve, and of which the appreciation will rise as the children, once at school, in their turn become parents, and that then, probably, and from thenceforth, private interest will effect all that is requisite, and the State, and even educational societies, may leave the interests of parents, children, and teachers to take care of themselves.

Comparative Efficiency of Schools.

No example that I have met with will better serve to illustrate the importance of a very plain and unpretentious English education than the experience of its effects at Orme's Charity School at Newcastle-under-Lyme.

Charity or free schools in both my districts are all attended by as many scholars as the schools will admit, and there are also in every case where I made the inquiry, always more applicants for admission than can be received. But these schools have not the advantage of being under government inspection, nor any other efficient public inspection. The situations of master, mistress, and

teachers are generally disposed of by the trustees by favour, and the persons chosen are commonly old servants of the patrons, or persons who, from bodily infirmity or other incapacity, are unable to obtain a livelihood, and whom it is thought a charity to appoint to these places. There are a few exceptional cases where competent teachers, strangers to the trustees and to the neighbourhood, have been appointed, and in all of these instances the results have been more satisfactory; but still, for want apparently of efficient and permanent superintendence, even in these cases, the schools remain far behind the average of inspected schools. The teaching in most of these schools is conducted without energy or much method; the schools are, with few exceptions, scenes of disorder and indiscipline, the chief quality developed in the children is a habit of servility, enforced under the name of respect for their benefactors and superiors. Still in all cases the benefits of a free education are sufficiently appreciated by parents, to fill the schools, but they are rarely sufficiently great to cause the children to be retained at school after the age at which they can earn any wages at all, and there are no schools as a class in my districts in which the attendance is less regular, or, with the exception of Dame Schools, ceases at so early an age.

The most striking exception in my districts to all these ordinary deficiencies of free schools is this school, Orme's Charity, at Newcastle; and as it serves to illustrate many important objects of my inquiry, it seems to deserve a somewhat detailed description. The school was founded about a century ago, being endowed with lands which have of late greatly increased in value by the opening of coal and iron-stone mines. But the endowment was long a subject of litigation, and the school itself was in abeyance from the beginning of the century till about 1846. Since it was re-opened the increase of the funds has from time to time allowed of an increase in the school, which now admits 120 boys. About 11 years ago the trustees appointed the present master, Mr. Emmanuel Earl, on the very proper ground of his success at the neighbouring British school, which he had raised from a very bad condition, and where in nine months he had raised the number of scholars from 30 to 80, and in three years to an average of 100, the extreme number then admissible to that school.

Mr. Earl was trained as a teacher by the British School Society. He is impressed with the importance of his duties and the value of his function; but strictly limits his efforts to the object of giving to his pupils a thoroughly plain and unpretentious English education, not extending beyond the acquisition of a power of audible and clear reading, good plain writing from dictation, and a ready and rapid use of the rules and practices of commercial arithmetic. By this limitation of his efforts he is able to concentrate his own and the assistant master's energies, as well as the capacities and time of his pupils, with effect. The writing from dictation was, in all the classes, the best for accuracy, legibility, and punctuation, that I saw in the course of my inquiry performed by boys of a

like age; and in the upper classes (where the age of the boys greatly exceeds that of any other charity school, or National, Wesleyan, or British or other popular school in the districts where my inquiry was made) these plain accomplishments were carried in their full proportion beyond the ordinary limit of attainments in such schools.

The practical results produced by this plain education, being soberly but steadily carried out, are very striking. In the first place it is thoroughly appreciated by the parents, who, though seeking a gratuitous education for their children, are found willing, for the sake of it, to leave their boys at school for a long period—an average of more than five years—beyond that at which they could in this district earn considerable wages to support themselves, and aid their families. The average age of all the boys who have left in the year 1859 is 12 years; and for the whole of the eleven years during which Mr. Earl has been master, the average age of leaving the school has been 11·7 years. Practically the parents, by foregoing the earnings of their children, and finding them maintenance for so long a time beyond what is usual, do make sacrifices greater than those who for a shorter time provide the school fees at other schools.

The conduct of the parents in thus continuing their children so long at this school is perfectly explained by the manifest fact, that the plain but really efficient education that they obtain here is a means of raising their value, respectability, and position in the world. The boys on leaving can all obtain the best situations open to boys of their age in the neighbourhood; they are known to be so well prepared that the school is, as it were, a house of call at which employers make their application when they want intelligent boys who can read or write or cypher. Mr. Earl very properly considers it a part of his duty to assist employers in their search, and he watches with interest the subsequent career of his pupils, and is able to give an account of the present position of every pupil but two who have left the school since he became its master. The information he gave me seemed to me to be of sufficient interest to justify my setting it forth at some length.

The boys who leave the school to become errand boys, commonly leave at about twelve years, and begin with wages of from 2s. 6d. to 4s. a week, which is never exceeded except when, as they often do, they become apprenticed. Apprentices commence at 14, with wages from 2s. 6d. to 3s. a week, increasing a shilling a week every year for two years, reaching commonly in the last year 10s. a week. Clerks are sought from the school by attorners, by officers of railways and others, whose employment is looked upon as a great advancement to boys, in the condition of those at this and similar schools. They begin at various rates of wages, from 3s. to 8s. a week: those who get 8s. being no better accomplished than those who begin at 5s. or 3s. They commonly engage for five years, and their wages rise about 2s. a week in the third year, and again 2s. more in the fifth year, and generally do not reach above 10s. a week in the fifth year. Pupil-teachers

begin at 4s. a week, and increase yearly by 2l. 10s. a year for five years.

The following gives the present earnings of the 16 pupils who have been placed in the last four years:—

			<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>			
Clerks.	{	(1) now aged 18	present wages	10	0	a week.	
		(2) " 15	" "	10	0	"	
		(3) " 16	" "	10	0	"	
		(4) " 20	" "	18	0	"	
		(5) " 19	" "	17	0	"	
			to increase next year to	21	0	"	
		(6) " 13	" "	5	0	"	
			to increase next year to	10	0	"	
		(7) " 17	" "	6	6	"	
		(8) " 14	" "	5	0	"	
		(9) " 16	" "	8	0	"	
		(10) " 18	" "	10	0	"	
		(11) " 17	" "	8	6	"	
		(12) " 18	" "	9	0	"	
		(13) " 17	" "	8	0	"	
		(14) " 17	" "	10	0	"	
(15) Qu. 15	" Qu.	5	0	"			
(16) Qu. 16	" Qu.	6	0	"			

These details relating to Orme's Charity School serve as an example to show, what all my other information in different degrees seems also to prove, that a very plain education thoroughly carried out, even in a charity school, will be well appreciated by children and their parents, that it will secure a respectable, easy, and profitable employment in life for the scholars, and will on these accounts recommend itself, and tend to secure an attendance at school for a length of time, which will never, in such districts as those of "the black country" and the potteries, be given up for a more pretentious and superficial training.

The Subject Matter of Education.

Perhaps the industrial character of the two districts to which my inquiry has been confined, the very early age at which the children leave their schools, and at which it is difficult to have made any strong impressions as to the preferableness of one Christian doctrine or discipline over another, above all the very slight interest which the adult labouring class here—the parents of the children—take in these distinctions, may account for the fact apparent to me throughout this inquiry, that the religious denomination of the school, or the religious instruction given in it, had little or no influence on the resort to it of children of the labouring class,—the bulk of all the children to which my attention was directed. The distinction between the children of the labouring class and those of the class of shopkeepers, of masters and employers, and of people of independent means, is clear and broad, persons of these latter classes being generally either attached to some distinct denominations, or entertaining opinions more or less opposed to the mixture of religious doctrine with secular

instruction, and in either case inclined to select for their children the schools in which the tuition is most conformable to their own religious views.

As to the very poorest class of tradespeople and independent handicraftsmen, indeed as to every class of people in any condition just above those who serve for daily or weekly wages, it may be said of all of them as classes, that they are in these districts attached, by preference, often a very strong one, to some particular religious denomination, and that they are rarely without a place of worship conformable to their views conveniently near at hand. When a school of any kind is connected with a place of worship, it is certainly the very general rule that the children of those attending the place of worship, attend also the school connected with it. The school is never established without some pecuniary and other sacrifice, and those who incur the cost and labour commonly do it with an intention to benefit in the first place, if not exclusively, the members of their particular community. They more particularly urge on those poorer people whom they are most connected with, the duty and the advantage of sending their children to the school, and their influence is of course greatest on those with whom they most agree, and are most in the habit of co-operating. For these reasons, undoubtedly religious distinctions, when they exist, generally determine the choice of a school where schools are provided corresponding with such distinctions, and these distinctions, especially when energetically urged by influential members of a community, often cause an inferior school to be preferred to a much better one of another denomination. Agreeing on the one ground of association, the whole connexion in the neighbourhood goes together as one flock when no obstacle or strong temptation causes a divergence; but this tendency seems to be rather the operation of neighbourly feelings holding the several religious communities together, than any proportionate repulsion that drives them from the schools of other communities. Those who prefer the school of their own denomination, do not generally show any reluctance to use the more accessible or better conducted or cheaper school of another denomination. The almost invariable answer given by parents who are questioned on the subject of their preference of an inferior school, is that they like their children to go to the school conducted by people of their own persuasion. It never, among the ordinary poor, takes the form of an objection, so far as I have observed, to the teaching at any other school.

In talking with the parents, more particularly the mothers of the children sent to any school, as to the grounds of their preference of the one over the other, one must be struck with the very practical reasons they usually give for it. "The school is nearer;" or "the road to it is better;" or "the master does not require the children to be so well clothed;" or "the mistress makes the girls so tidy;" or "the master makes the boys write so much better;" or "more clever at ciphering;" or "the girls get out into so much better places through such a lady taking

care of them ;" and the like reasons sufficient or insufficient, but in 99 cases out of 100 always practical reasons. When a so-called religious ground is asserted by a mother of a child of the working class, it rarely amounts to more than the routine one, that "she or the master goes to church," or "to the chapel;" or when they go to neither, then "that Mr. — or Mrs. — persuaded them" to send their children to the school in question; or sometimes that "they do not like the schoolmaster of our school, because he is a teetotaller;" or the vicar "who manages the Church school, because he struts about the town in a shovel hat like a bishop;" or "because I hate all dissenters." In scores of answers I have received from people of this class, to account for the choice of one school, or the rejection of another on some supposed ground of religious preference, I have never in any one case been able to discover any single element of religious conviction or scruple; nor do I believe that any real religious difference operates in any sensible degree on the working population of these districts; but that where it appears to do so, it is in the great majority of cases only as a result of the desire to do as their friends, neighbours, and associates do, and not as a consequence of any more intimate conscientious conviction, which could be outraged by any school practice compatible with the opinion of any other Protestant sect.

Thus, the better National school at Netherton has for about one third of its number of scholars children of dissenters, and these for the sake of the better daily teaching submit without complaint to the condition which is imposed of attending the National Sunday school likewise; but as the body of the children go from the school to church, the children of dissenters file off right and left to their respective places of worship, leaving about two thirds of their number to go to the church. A very small inducement often prevails over all religious partialities. For instance, at Tittensor, where the Duke of Sutherland owns the land and cottages, where he provides without any aids the schools and their maintenance, it was thought proper that the parents should pay for the schooling, and the rate of 2*d.* a week was fixed, and the school well attended. But the Roman Catholic school fee being reduced to 1½*d.* weekly, was found to be a sufficient inducement to draw away the children of people of the profession of the Church of England, and of some dissenters, and the Duke, in order to keep the children at his school, felt compelled to follow the lead, and to reduce the pay of his school to 1½*d.* per week, also. When I received this information from Mr. Jackson, his Grace's secretary, he was in expectation of a further threatened reduction of the Roman Catholic school to 1*d.* a week, in which case it was thought that it would then be necessary, in order to keep the children at the Duke's school, to drop the fees there also to 1*d.* a week. It is admitted, that at Tittensor the people, though very well off, generally value education very little, and avail themselves of all excuses for allowing their children to absent themselves from school; and whenever any small arrear of payments may have

accrued, the parents threaten if they are not excused from payment, to send their children to the Roman Catholic school, where they will not be so hardly dealt with; and they, on occasion given to them, actually carry their threat into execution. A few pence in these cases often turns the balance against what might as supposed to be the religious predisposition of the parents, be well as against the better as compared with an inferior school.

On the other hand, the cases described to me were numerous wherein strongly expressed religious views gave way to the interest which parents of the middle class feel in the better education of their children. In no really good school in either of my districts, national, or dissenting, or private, did I fail to find that the scholars were largely mixed, consisting always for the most part of the children of parents whose religious views were supposed to be those of the managers of the school, but always also of the children of people of other professions residing near, although there might be accessible schools for the latter managed by persons of their own opinion. Sometimes, where such schools are not accessible, it might be supposed that the wish of the parent gave way to the sheer impossibility of obtaining the desired education without making concession of the religious objection, as in the case of a child of a person of the Jewish persuasion pointed out to me in the British School of Newcastle, wherein all the children were required to be present at the reading of the Lord's Prayer. Since that school was placed under its present master, its character having again risen with its neighbours generally, people even of some opulence are desirous of the good, plain, practical education obtainable there. A retired tradesman, rich and respectable, sent one of three sons, and afterwards the two others, taking one of them from a superior private school, the other from the Grammar School. Finding the association not so good as he desired for his children, he took them away and again, on trial of other schools, had sent back one of them, whom I saw at this school. A similar preference operated on the Jewish parents of this child, who however objected to his presence at the saying of the Lord's Prayer, and remonstrated strongly, but finding that the rule could not be departed from, sent their child nevertheless, and he had been regularly present from Christmas 1858 to the 2nd of May, 1859, when I saw him. In this case the parents were under no difficulty as to obtaining education for their child in some one of many schools as accessible as this, and not more expensive, where no condition opposed to their religious views would have been enforced, and no other motive appears to have decided them in this case besides the mere preference of the kind of secular education afforded at this school.

In two cases in the Potteries I was informed by the managers of Sunday schools that there was an objection to any merely secular instruction being given on Sunday, and on this account the writing classes were held on evenings of some working day during the week. One of these was the very important school of the Methodist New Connexion, and I took pains to lear

whether what was implied in the information as first given to me, namely, that the objection was entertained by the scholars themselves or their parents, was a matter of fact. On a searching inquiry amongst the managers and teachers, I could not learn that the objection had ever been made either by a scholar or a parent of a scholar, but that it had been strongly maintained by two of the managers, and acquiesced in by others who joined in the apprehension that the objection might possibly be made, but did not know that it had ever actually been made.

I have described the success of Orme's Charity school under Mr. Earle's mastership. He is himself of the Independent connexion, and was educated at the British and Foreign Society's school. The founder of Orme's Charity was of the Church of England, as are most of the managers. The Bible and Testament are regularly read and explained, but the views of the parents of the scholars are only to be conjectured from the Sunday schools to which they are known to send their children. Of the whole 118 scholars present at one of my visits there went,—

To the two Church Schools	-	-	-	-	-	41
To the Chapels of the Methodist New Connexion						34
" Wesleyans	-	-	-	-	-	19
" Independents	-	-	-	-	-	10
" Primitive Methodists	-	-	-	-	-	11
" Roman Catholics	-	-	-	-	-	2
Nowhere	-	-	-	-	-	1
						<hr/> 118 <hr/>

At the excellent National school under the Rev. W. Wade's management at Kidsgrove, the master gave me the account of the attendance at the Sunday schools of all the boys of the four first classes (124 boys out of the whole 190), viz. :—

At the Church school	-	-	-	-	-	74
At the Wesleyan and Primitive Methodists'	-	-	-	-	-	43
At no Sunday school	-	-	-	-	-	7
						<hr/> 124 <hr/>

As far as I can judge, these are fair examples out of many of the readiness of parents to accept a useful education for their children wherever it can be obtained. I have found religious distinctions strongly insisted on by the promoters and managers of schools. These are active in canvassing for supporters, for subscribers, for teachers, and for scholars, and undoubtedly produce a great influence on parents within their connexion, and as speakers, and preachers, and writers, a still greater one proportionally on the opinion of the public. But the genuine, unstimulated opinion of the poorer classes of parents who desire education for their children appears to me to be universally a simple desire for a good, useful, plain education, with little care about religious

distinctions of doctrine or discipline, except only so far that Protestant parents of all classes avoid the Roman Catholic schools, and Roman Catholic parents nearly as generally avoid Protestant schools of all denominations. All the other professed desire to maintain in tuition religious distinctions appears to me not to be genuine and popular but factitious, and wholly stimulated by enthusiastic and professional promoters of education, seeking not to conciliate or represent the general opinion, but to propagate their own.

In this district it is everywhere apparent that a good school-master or mistress is immediately appreciated even amongst the most ignorant and indifferent populations. So far as the children and parents are concerned it would here matter little or nothing for their success as promoters of popular education, whether the teachers were of one religious profession or another, provided only that their teaching were practically useful, and their conduct respectable. But the subject has undoubtedly a very different aspect so long as it is necessary to find artificial and extraneous means of support to popular schools. The patrons, the managers, the subscribers, whose aid is still required for the establishment of popular schools, are almost universally attached to some one or other of our separate religious communities, and are almost all, in proportion to this attachment, not only desirous of extending its importance and influence, but in most cases, more or less avowedly desirous of checking the development of all the others. This division of opinion amongst the patrons of education seems in this district to have two very distinguishable effects. In the more populous and opulent parts the active rivalry and competition undoubtedly operate to multiply schools and teachers, and stimulate the progress of popular education, but in all those less populous and prosperous districts, where it is most difficult to support a school at all it commonly has the effect, by cutting off a part of the whole means of the place, of retarding the establishment of any school at all, or else of causing the establishment of two or more inefficient rival schools in the place of a single good one. Thus it is probable that the rivalry of sects has promoted popular education in the most populous places, and retarded it in others.

But, confining my observations to the districts in which I have made my inquiry, I am forced to the conclusion that the anxiety commonly expressed as to the necessity of consulting the religious convictions of the community has a just foundation in the present opinions and springs of action of those who for the most part promote, support, and manage schools, but has very little foundation indeed in the real opinions of either the scholars themselves or their parents.

THE POTTERIES.

Having made such general remarks as appear to me of importance, and which were suggested to me chiefly by the results of my inquiry in the Dudley Union, although they apply equally and in some instances in greater force to the district of the Potteries,

I now proceed to make some observations particularly relating to the whole district of the Potteries.

I commenced my inquiry in this district on the 2nd of February 1859, and terminated it on the 17th of May in the same year.

The district assigned to me, and commonly recognized as the Potteries, consists of the parishes comprised in the three Poor Law Unions of Stoke-upon-Trent, of Woolstanton and Burslem, and of Newcastle-under-Lyme; viz.,—

I. In the union of Stoke-upon-Trent:—

1. The parish of Stoke-upon-Trent, which consists of the townships of Bagnall, Boothen, Botteslow, Bucknall (which includes the hamlet of Ubblerley), Bucknall Eaves, Clayton, Fenton Culvert or Great Fenton (which includes part of the hamlet of Lane Delph, the remainder of which is in the township of Fenton Culvert), Hanley (which includes a place called Northwood), Lane End and Longton, Penkhull (which includes the town of Stoke-upon-Trent, the village of Penkhull, and the places called Basford, Harts Hill, Trent Vale, and Stoke Road), Seabridge and Shelton (which includes a place called Etruria, and part of the village of Cobridge, the remainder of which is in the township of Burslem, Woolstanton, and Burslem Union):

In all 10,490 acres, with a population in 1851 of 259,942.

II. In the Union of Woolstanton and Burslem:—

2. The parish of Burslem, which consists of the township of Burslem (which includes the places called Dale Hall, Longport, and part of the village of Cobridge, the remainder of which is in the township of Shelton, Stoke-upon-Trent parish). The hamlet of Sneyd, the ville of Rushton Grange, and the lordship of Abbey Halton (which includes the hamlets of Milton and Sneyd Green).

3. The parish of Wolstanton, which consists of the townships of Brieryhurst (or Brerhurst), Chatterley, Chesterton, Great and Little Chell, Knutton, Oldcott, Ranscliff (or Rainscliff), Stadmoreslow, Thursfield, Tunstall, Wedgwood, and Woolstanton, and the villages of Dales Green, Goldenhill, Greenfield, Harrishead, Kidsgrove, Mow Cop, Sandyford, and Wainlee:

In all 13,679 acres, with a population in 1851 of 41,916.

III. In the union of Newcastle-under-Lyme:—

4. The parish of Audley, which consists of the townships of Audley, Bignall End, Eardley End, Knowl End (which includes the hamlet of Shaleybrook), Park End, and Talk-o'-th'-Hill, and the liberty of Halmer End;

5. The township of Balterley;

6. The parish of Batley;

7. The chapelry of Chorlton, which includes the township of Chorlton Hill and part of the hamlet of Stableford (the remainder of which is in the parish of Swinnerton or Synnerton Stone Union);

8. The parish of Keele, which includes the village of Silverdale;

9. The parish of Madeley, which consists of the township of Madeley (which includes the hamlet of Little Madeley) and Onneley;

10. The parish of Maer, which consists of the township of Maer and the hamlet of Maerway Lane;

11. The parish of Newcastle-under-Lyne;

12. The parish of Whitmore;

In all 26,718 acres, with a population in 1851 of 20,814.

The whole district of the Potteries, as thus defined, contains 50,887 acres, or rather more than 79 square miles, with a population in 1851 of 120,672 persons.

Occupations of the Population.

The occupations of the inhabitants of this district are various. The industry, however, which chiefly characterizes it, and gives to it the name of the Potteries, occupies the greater part of the population in Stoke, Fenton, Longton, or Lane End, Shelton, Hanley, Burslem, and Tunstall, the most populous parts of the district, where the finer kinds of the porcelain and earthenware goods, such as are made of imported clays and flint, are produced, while the coarser kinds of pottery, such as roof or draining tiles, and other red, brown, and black clay wares, and bricks, the ancient and original produce of this district, are made wherever the clay required for their manufacture is found near to the surface. But little pottery of any kind, and none of the finer kinds, is made anywhere in the Newcastle Union, although Newcastle itself was for a long period a chief seat of manufacture of the red earthenware, particularly of butter pots. Glass is also extensively made in the parts of the district where pottery is made, especially at Burslem, where the extensive works of Messrs. Davonport are situated.

The next great occupation of the population is in coal mining, nearly the whole district being supposed to be situated over a coal-field, and coal being raised sufficient for the consumption of all the manufactures and for the domestic consumption of the district as well as for exportation.

The next most important industry is that of the ironworks, both for the smelting and the forging of iron, which have been rapidly increased of later years, and appear to be likely, at no great length of time, to rival in quantity as they do now in quality of produce those of South Staffordshire, which is now largely supplied with ironstone from this district. The ironworks are chiefly established at Cobridge, at Tunstall and at Kidsgrove in the Woolstanton and Burslem Union, and at Keele and Silverdale in the Newcastle Union, always in conjunction with the working of coal mines, or in close proximity to such mines.

The next important occupation, which almost wholly employs girls and a few young women, is the throwing of silk, for which there are three silk mills in the near neighbourhood of New-

castle, established here in order to obtain the labour of children more cheaply, when the old trade of the town, the hat manufacture, was decaying, and to be out of the reach of the strikes which disturbed the business in Macclesfield and Congleton and other places where the manufacture of silk is more largely carried on. There is also one cotton-spinning mill. The hat manufacture of Newcastle has dwindled down to the produce of one not very considerable establishment.

Agriculture is here interfered with in the pottery and mining and iron district by the breaking up of the land, rendering it less suitable on that account for extensive arable culture, which, nevertheless, holds its ground to a considerable extent, even in these places, while it is scarcely affected by them in the Newcastle Union. But the land is favourable for pasture, and no use of it is so profitable as the produce of milk for the consumption of the large manufacturing population, who here also know no beef but that of dry or barren cows. Wherever there is a stream of water available, it is used for the irrigation of upland meadows, which are considerable in extent, and very profitable. The farms are generally small in extent, often not exceeding 50 acres, and rarely as great as 100.

Occupations of Children.

The pottery trade, by its vast and incessant development, provides a constantly increasing employment, in which children of both sexes, and at the earliest ages, can be profitably employed at good wages. Many of the operations are extremely light and easy, such as the carrying of the moulds of the smaller wares from the moulder's shop to the furnace. Such work can be perfectly well done by children of six or seven years of age. Other work is equally light, but requires a little more dexterity, such as the moulding of the lighter wares, and the fixing of the patterns. Others, again, are more sedentary, such as painting, gilding and burnishing, and are well fitted for girls and young women. Some require some degree of artistic skill, such as pattern-making, painting, and modelling, but only the latter occasionally requires a matured ability, and the greater part of all these operations are performed by young people for the most part born and bred in this district. The direct effect of all improvements that add to the delicacy of the wares, the elaborateness of patterns, or the costliness of the embellishment, is to diminish the proportion of the heavier work, and to increase greatly the lighter work, employing woman and children. In all the pot works the employment of children is multiplied in proportion to the costliness of the pottery produced; and as the tendency is to a constant increase in this direction, the prospect is that the employment of children, at early ages, will still increase as the trade itself advances. Other parts of the labour are coarse and rude, such as the grinding and mixing and kneading the clay and flint, and indeed almost all the operations in the red pottery and tile and brick works. Again, some require merely bodily strength and endurance such as can be supplied by

men only, such as the furnace work, which is to a large extent performed only by the lowest class of pottery labourers, and in a considerable proportion of it by men of unfixed habits, coming from other parts of the country.

The employment of children in this work is under no special legal regulation, and is solely governed by the pleasure of the parents, and the interest of the employers. As the work is both lighter and in some of its earlier stages even easier than the lightest works in the iron district of South Staffordshire, and is in greatly more demand, the employment of extremely young children is even more general than there, and the motives to place them at such work operate even more extensively than there. The effect on attendance at school is inevitable in this state of things. The attendance of a child, destined to be a small ware potter, at a day school after seven or eight years of age is, in the present legal position of the trade, a fact never witnessed, and not to be expected. Where the nature of the work, as in the coarse pottery works, demands more strength, and is unfit for very young boys or for girls at any age, potters' children, when they do not find work at some of the light trades, are sometimes kept at school for a longer period.

The subject of a compulsory education of the children employed in the Potteries upon the principle of the Factory Acts, requiring their attendance under certain ages, for a certain portion,—as a half of their time,—at school, is often discussed here in private; but its public discussion is not encouraged. The employers are jealous of one another, and of the advantages which those in some branches of the trade would have under such a system as against others. The employers engaged in the finest work, occupying far the greatest number of young children, would be exposed to the greatest portion of inconvenience and pecuniary sacrifice. But some of the most eminent of these express in private their approval of such a system, and their own personal readiness to adopt it even without legal compulsion, if it could be introduced as a general plan, affecting equally themselves and their competitors. I was surprised to find the unanimity of the adult population, including both the fathers and mothers of the children employed, in declaring that such a measure was not necessary, and that it would destroy the fine pottery trade. This very prevalent opinion makes public men unwilling to discuss the subject in a place where party politics run high. But it seems to me to be very probable that a compulsory introduction of the principle of the education clauses of the Factory Acts would be approved by many, and would not now be very seriously or powerfully opposed.

Although this trade occupies the greater portion of the young children in the district in which it is carried on, and so prevents their attendance at day schools, it must be admitted that the trade itself in its lighter departments is not a brutalising one. The children are employed in extensive manufactories under the eye of overlookers. The leading manufacturers have for a century past been solicitous about the moral condition of the people they employ. The district, Hanley and Burslem more particularly, is

one of those in which about a century ago the earliest and greatest efforts were made by Wesley and his followers, and has always been a great field for the exertions of the Methodists. Most of the masters, said to be two-thirds of the whole, are of this or other denominations of dissent. It is universally allowed that they have exerted themselves strenuously to give a religious education to the population. They have established numerous well-supported schools; have, on the whole, appointed as good masters and teachers as the supply afforded. It is everywhere asserted and admitted that, as a class, they have set their faces against the habit of excessive drinking, and very effectually as regards their more skilled workmen. I myself, in company with the inspector of police, visited on Saturday nights, when wages having been paid, the workmen have most to spend, every drinking shop in Hanley, and many of the most considerable in other places in this district; but no drinking place in this district is equal in extent or splendour to any of the third or fourth rate drinking shops in Dudley; none of them have the allurements of acting or dancing, though in one or two was heard a miserable organ played by a street itinerant. In none of these were to be found any children drinking, and but here and there a child in a mother's arms or in company with a mother, but not in any case, as is common at Dudley, to drink on his or her own independent account. The houses most frequented are of a low and unalluring character, frequented not at all by skilled potters, but by furnacemen, forgemen, and pitmen, few of them permanent residents in this district, and a large proportion of them Irish, and one house frequented wholly by Irish was tidy and orderly to an extent I never witnessed in houses of the same class in Dudley.

Sobriety, at least, may be said fairly to be the general distinction of those employed both in the finer and the lighter work of the potteries; and this tends to afford to those engaged in them the time and the means to take part in the numerous evening classes and schools, and creditable amusements largely provided in this district by the liberality of the employers, and the subscriptions and payments of those who take their share in them. The employment in the manufacture of fine pottery is indeed one which in itself constitutes in its progressive steps a sort of civilising education. The work requires gentleness and steadiness. Its delicacy and complication increase at every stage, requiring a correspondent development of qualities in the workman. Its lighter branches constitute a most remunerating occupation for artistical excellence, which is the ground for the support of schools of design at Stoke, Hanley, and Newcastle, all of which are successful and flourishing, and of which that of Stoke is reported to be one of the most successful in the kingdom. In some of these establishments, as that of Messrs. Minton, now conducted by Mr. Colin Campbell, the production of ornamental works may be described as approaching to the productions of fine art, and this branch of pottery is daily improving in form and colour and choice of design, and only requires the development of the faculty of original design, which

the progress of the schools of design appears to promise, to become equal in its way to anything that has yet been seen.

Besides the attendance of considerable numbers of young persons of both sexes at the schools of design, a large attendance of them is also to be observed at numerous evening schools as well as at some excellent evening classes for self-instruction, at which it may be seen how little the work of the day exhausts the mental energies of the potter. In some of these, subjects of study are selected and pursued with energy, indicating both a sense of refinement and a lofty ambition, which occasional success proves not to be wholly out of place. In all of them the pursuit of practically useful studies, such as practical mathematics and book-keeping (which is a very favourite study), lead to advancement in life, and fit workmen to become much more capable masters than those are who ordinarily graduate through their ranks without any other acquirements than such as can be made in the workshop.

On the other side, it is to be regretted that the moral relations of the sexes are very loose, and that the depravity of youth in this respect is of a glaring and repulsive character. Even the power of bold and skilful drawing commonly attained is made hateful by its gross public abuse, by which vacant and public places are in all directions defaced.

The work of the coal mines is carried on by the same class of men as in South Staffordshire, from which and from the coal districts of Wales the greater number migrate, generally staying but a short time in any one place, and when their character or credit is lost there migrating to another. As the work of women in mining is wholly forbidden, and the work of children restricted, some few girls in pitmen's families remain at school a sufficient time to obtain as good and useful an education as the neighbouring schools are now able to supply. This is particularly the case at the extensive collieries and ironworks at Kidsgrove, where the munificent conduct of the proprietress, Mrs. Kinnersley, and the indefatigable zeal and ability of the incumbent, Mr. Wade, have provided and organized schools, in which useful domestic habits are especially fostered in the girls, and which are amongst the most successful in the country. These works are too remote from the pottery district to allow of the children of the workpeople engaging in that work. The silk manufacturing district of Congleton is within five miles, but this manufacture being under legal restriction as to the ages of the children employed, requiring the attendance half their time at school of children under eleven, attracts none of that early age from this district, although it does attract a considerable proportion of the girls above that age. The kindness of the employer here disfavours the employment of children before they have had such benefit as it is possible to obtain from the schools established for them. The natural consequence is flourishing schools, now able nearly to support themselves in a great degree of efficiency, a supply of useful domestic service, both in the houses of the workpeople and of employers, a great increase of domestic comfort among the workpeople, a greater tendency in these to

settle permanently, and an absence of crime very remarkable where such works as coal mining and the iron manufacture are carried on.

But other places where coal and iron works are carried on are not so fortunately situated. At Lord Granville's works, where excellent schools are established and good teachers provided, the whole superintended zealously at his Lordship's expense by the curate, the Rev. Mr. Bonner, though the attendance is very good for the district in which the works are placed, it is fatally interfered with by the proximity of the potteries and the temptation of the wages to be earned there by the youngest children.

At Silverdale, where through a rapid development of mining and iron manufacture, a great congregation of very rough people has taken place within the last few years, especially of forgersmen from South Staffordshire, who were the subject of grievous complaints by the other residents.

DUDLEY UNION AND THE POTTERIES.

Detailed and Statistical Results of the Inquiry.

I now proceed to state in more detail the results of my inquiry, combining these results for both districts, namely, of Dudley in Worcestershire and South Staffordshire, and of the Potteries in North Staffordshire, and stating the whole in the order of the Commissioners' instructions.

I will premise that throughout the whole inquiry I have received the ready and even zealous assistance of all classes of persons, and the most free and, as far as I could judge, unreserved statements of facts and expressions of opinion from all persons in any way connected with public schools, with one class exception only, namely, that of the managers and schoolmasters, mistresses, and teachers of Roman Catholic schools. As to the latter, it is probable that the masters and mistresses and teachers would in all cases—certainly they would in some—have willingly afforded me information had they not been forbidden by the priest who had the management of the school. Mr. Tyson, the Roman Catholic priest at Sedgely, courteously afforded me the information I desired. In a few other instances some little objection was made at first, chiefly by clergymen of the Church of England, to give information as to the National schools under their management. The objection was in most cases founded on their resolution to give no information otherwise than through an ecclesiastical channel; but whatever their objection, it was in all cases eventually abandoned. Several objections were made by the proprietors of private schools, especially girls' schools, to give me any information whatever. Most of these objections were also, on my personal explanations, abandoned.

As in all cases it appeared to be necessary for the sake of the statistical portion of the inquiry, that it should be as complete as possible, I took steps to obtain the information refused in the best way open to me, by the oral report of scholars, of teachers, or of neighbours who undertook to make a careful observation and

enumeration of the matters in question, all of which I checked by counter information and by observation on the spot at the time of going to and from school, and in some instances, in the case of Roman Catholic schools, by actual observation of myself and clerks within the schools. I believe in every case the information thus obtained, though defective in several particulars, is, so far as it goes, more particularly as to the scholars actually in attendance on the days when the information was obtained, as trustworthy as that supplied by written reports in the more regular manner. I have reason to believe that no school of any kind existed in either of my districts at the time of my inquiry which is not enumerated, and of which at least the number of scholars in attendance on the day to which the information relates is not correctly given. Moreover I am in general satisfied of the accuracy and trustworthiness of the information afforded me. In only one instance, though I very often carefully scrutinized the information given me, did I detect a willful error as to any public school, and that I caused to be corrected. In the case of private girls' schools, I am not so confident of the absolute correctness in all cases of the numbers of scholars reported to be on the mistresses' books, for I detected in many instances a desire to enhance the importance of the school, by exaggerating its number of scholars and its respectability, by a like exaggeration of the terms of payment by the pupils, and of the kind and number of the accomplishments imparted to them, and I found that in such cases it would be extremely unpleasant, and might frustrate my inquiry in other particulars, if I should attempt to search this question very closely; and in most instances the exaggeration of the numbers of scholars, the most important question, will be found capable of correction by the statement of the numbers in actual attendance on the day of the inquiry, which was generally stated truly, and was, when discrepant with the other numbers reported, explained by some particular circumstance supposed to have kept the scholars at home, such as the weather, if that was not fine, or the fact that it was a general washing day or the market day, or some other occasion when they were required at home for domestic service.

It is proper that I should state that I found it difficult to draw the line suggested by the Commissioners' instructions between private schools for girls of the poorer classes and of the classes better off. There is an objection on the part of many parents to send their girls to National or other public schools, who at the same time send their boys to such schools. This is the reason why private schools for girls are more numerous than those for boys, which latter have been superseded by the public schools, and receive many scholars whose parents could well afford to send them to private schools or public schools of higher pretensions. In this difficulty I have taken the course of including in my inquiry all private schools for girls which are commonly attended by the children of the same class of persons as send their boys to public schools of the popular class.

The basis of the comparison made between the schools in these districts, as ascertained at the time of the census in 1851, and at

that of my inquiry at the end of 1858 and the beginning of 1859, consists in the proportions of the population as ascertained at the first date, to the number assumed to exist at the latter. This latter number is calculated on the presumption that the population has continued to increase at the same rate since 1851, as that at which it was ascertained to have increased between 1841 and 1851. I believe, on the whole, that this presumption is well founded. In both my districts there are parts in which the increase has been very rapid in the latter period. In the Dudley Union, in the district of Cradley Heath, the increase is much more rapid within the last few years, but this is more than balanced by the somewhat less rapid increase of the most populous parts of the Union,—Dudley itself and Tipton, for instance,—in which the greatest increase is considered by the superintendent-registrar and deputy-registrars to have taken place within the former period. On the whole, the conclusion of these officers is, that it is quite fair to assume the rate of increase in the entire Union to be the same in the one period as in the other. In the Potteries, it is the opinion of the superintendent-registrars that the rate of increase of population has been very regular within both the compared periods; in the Stoke Union, the rate being supposed to have been rather slower; in the Burslem and Woolstanton Union, to have been about equal; and in some parts of the Newcastle Union to have been greatly accelerated by the opening of coal and ironstone mines and iron works, as in the township of Hutton, where the population has increased from 1,300 to 4,300. On the whole, this local increase will only have disturbed the proportion in respect of the Newcastle Union, and this disturbance will be probably found to be balanced by the less rapid progress in the more populous unions in the Potteries. It appears to me, therefore, that the grounds of the comparison have in this respect been safely assumed.

The general results of my inquiry are exhibited in the following table :

TABLE I.

	No. of Schools.	Scholars.			Under 3 years of age.			Above 15 years of age.		
		M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.
PUBLIC SCHOOLS.										
Dudley	66	4,413	3,077	7,490	—	—	—	—	—	—
Potteries:										
Stoke-upon-Trent	50	2,554	1,991	4,545	71	80	151	3	—	3
Burslem and Woolstanton	40	2,382	2,077	4,459	150	120	270	5	6	11
Newcastle-under-Lyme	28	1,197	1,064	2,261	32	43	75	6	3	9
	184			18,755						
PRIVATE SCHOOLS.										
Dudley	308	2,869	4,121	6,990	—	—	—	—	—	—
Potteries:										
Stoke-upon-Trent	133	1,586	1,885	3,471	67	60	127	14	11	25
Burslem and Woolstanton	85	996	1,178	2,174	51	48	99	0	15	15
Newcastle-under-Lyme	34	562	458	1,020	7	10	17	4	7	11
	560			13,655						

Table 1.—*continued.*

	No. of Schools.	Scholars.			Under 3 years of age.			Above 15 years of age.		
		M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.
EVENING SCHOOLS.										
Dudley	32	1,286	121	1,407	-	-	-	-	-	-
Potteries:										
Stoke-upon-Trent	39	819	429	1,258	-	-	-	-	-	-
Burslem and Woolstanton	15	400	160	560	-	-	-	-	-	-
Newcastle-under-Lyme	3	99	36	135	-	-	-	-	-	-
	89	2,604	756	4,360						
SUNDAY SCHOOLS.										
Dudley	137	11,352	10,035	22,387	-	-	-	-	-	-
Potteries:										
Stoke-upon-Trent	115	6,843	6,705	13,548	-	-	-	-	-	-
Burslem and Woolstanton	113	6,591	6,127	12,718	-	-	-	-	-	-
Newcastle-under-Lyme	45	1,756	1,677	3,433	-	-	-	-	-	-
	410			32,086						
Grand Total	12,431			88,836						

Public Schools and Private Schools.

The above table shows the numbers of each class of schools provided in these Districts for the education of the poorer classes, and the number of scholars in them in the last quarter of 1858.

But confining attention to day schools, and combining for the sake of the comparison with their state at the time of the census in 1851, the statements as to both public and private schools, I am enabled, by means of some forms of tables supplied to me by your registrar, Mr. Flint, to present the following comparisons.

By table 2 will be seen the great progress made in the relative numbers of the scholars, as shown in the census of 1851, and as ascertained in this inquiry. On the whole amount there would appear to be an increase of nearly one upon three, or 30 per cent. in the relative number of scholars undergoing education, and in the actual numbers from 22,338, to 33,159, or about 50 per cent.

TABLE 2.—SCHOLARS IN WEEK-DAY SCHOOLS, Public and Private, compared with Population.

UNION.	Scholars of all ages in 1851. (Education Census.)	Population in 1851. (Census.)	Scholars of all ages in 1858.	Population (estimated) in 1858.	Proportion of Scholars to Population in 1851.	Proportion of Scholars to Population in 1858.
Dudley	9,002	166,530	15,229	123,699	1 in 10·7	1 in 8·1
Stoke-upon-Trent	6,056	57,342	8,016	60,150	1 in 9·5	1 in 8·2
Newcastle-under-Lyme	2,304	20,514	3,251	21,705	1 in 8·9	1 in 6·6
Burslem and Wolstanton	4,016	41,016	6,633	49,909	1 in 10·4	1 in 7·5
• Total	22,338	287,202	33,159	261,553	1 in 10·17	1 in 7·8

The next table will show the proportions of scholars at these schools to the population, as given in the census of 1851 and as calculated for 1858.

TABLE 3.—PUBLIC and PRIVATE WEEK-DAY SCHOOLS.

UNION.	Schools enumerated in 1858 by Mr. Coode.			Scholars between 3 and 15 enumerated by Mr. Coode.						Scholars of all ages enumerated by Mr. Coode.	Estimated Population for each Union in 1858.	Proportion of Scholars to Population in 1858.	
	Public.	Private.	Total.	In Public Schools.			In Private Schools.						Total.
				M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.				
Dudley - -	66	308	374	4,413	3,077	7,490	2,869	4,121	6,990	14,480	15,229	123,699	1 in 8·1
Stoke-upon-Trent	50	133	183	2,480	1,911	4,391	1,505	1,814	3,319	7,710	8,016	66,150	1 in 8·2
Newcastle-under-Lyme.	28	34	62	1,159	1,018	2,177	551	441	992	3,169	3,291	21,795	1 in 6·6
Burslem and Wolstanton.	40	85	125	2,227	1,915	4,178	945	115	2,060	6,238	6,633	49,909	1 in 7·5

The next table shows the daily attendance at these public schools as compared with the numbers belonging to them.

TABLE 4.—AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE in PUBLIC SCHOOLS as compared with the Number belonging to the Schools.

UNION.	Number of Schools that made Returns of Average Attendance.	Number of Scholars belonging to the foregoing Schools.	Average Number of Scholars in Daily Attendance.	Percentage of the Scholars in Average Daily Attendance.
Dudley - - -	63	7,466	5,696	76·29
Stoke-upon-Trent -	50	4,545	3,438	75·6
Newcastle-under-Lyme -	28	2,261	1,754	77·5
Burslem and Wolstanton	40	4,459	3,242	72·7

The following table shows the liberality with which accommodation has been provided for the inhabitants of this district, exceeding the present actual use made of it in the proportion of about 80 per cent. But the comparison is of any significance only in those cases where schools actually exist accessible to all the population for which they are intended. In many cases there are considerable districts without a school or even a church accessible to children. For instance, in the parish of Rowley Regis, in the Dudley Union, there is abundant accommodation both in the school and the church for the village of Rowley itself, but not half enough for the whole parish, for there are districts in the parish much more considerable than the village, as the district called Tivdale, with a population exceeding 3,000, and the district called the Braids, with about an equal population, neither of which has an accessible school or a church. If all such cases could be

brought within the comparison, the result would probably still be that in this district the whole of the accommodation would be sufficient for the present wants of all the population; but that in some places this accommodation is superabundant, and in other places is very insufficient, and in some wholly wanting.

TABLE 5.—PUBLIC WEEK-DAY SCHOOLS.

UNION.	Number of Schools that made Returns of School Accommodation.	Average Number of Scholars in Daily Attendance in foregoing Schools.	Number of Scholars for whom School Accommodation in foregoing Schools at 8 square feet per Scholar.	Per-centage of excess of School Accommodation as compared with Average Daily Attendance of Scholars.
Dudley - - -	52	4,942	8,929	80'
Stoke-upon-Trent -	20	1,518	2,709	78' 4
Newcastle-under-Lyme -	17	1,095	2,129	94' 4
Burslem and Wolstanton	24	1,850	3,231	74' 6
Total - - -	113	9,405	16,998	80'

The next table serves to exhibit the rapid progress in the establishment of schools, showing, as to those from which the returns have been made, that above 26 per cent. of the whole number now existing have been established since 1851. It also exhibits the gratifying fact that the increase has been most rapid where it was most required in 1851, namely, by 58 per cent. in the Stoke-upon-Trent Union, and by nearly 22 per cent. in Burslem, while in the places long since provided with endowed and free schools, and more lately, but still before 1851, with National and British and other public schools, the increase being less necessary has been in the more moderate proportions of about 17 per cent. in the Dudley Union, and of 10 per cent. in the Newcastle Union.

TABLE 6.—Showing the PERIODS in which the SCHOOLS were established.

N.B.—In framing this Table those Schools which were established in 1851 have been classed among those established since 1851.

UNION.	Number of Schools established.			Per-centage of Schools established.	
	Previous to 1851.	Since 1851.	Total.	Previous to 1851.	Since 1851.
Dudley - - -	49	10	59	83' 05	16' 94
Stoke-upon-Trent -	13	18	31	41' 9	58'
Newcastle-under-Lyme -	18	2	20	90'	10'
Burslem and Wolstanton	25	7	32	78' 1	21' 8
Total - - -	105	37	142	74'	26'

The building of the existing schools has not conformed to this proportion, except in the Dudley Union. In the Newcastle Union new buildings have been very largely erected in place of the old ones, found inconvenient and inadequate. On the whole, the next table shows that one-third of the present schools have been erected within about seven years, and this exhibits but a part of the progress, inasmuch as the most recently built schools are also those which are the best constructed for the purpose, and afford the more ample accommodation, amounting indeed to nearly 50 instead of 33 per cent. of the whole, and in the Newcastle Union to about 85 per cent. of the whole.

TABLE 7.—Showing the PERIODS at which SCHOOLS BUILDINGS were erected.

N.B.—In framing this Table those Schools which were erected in 1851 have been classed among those erected since 1851.

UNION.	Number of School Buildings erected.			Per-centage of School Buildings erected.	
	Before 1851.	Since 1851.	Total.	Before 1851.	Since 1851.
Dudley - - -	40	8	48	83·33	16·66
Stoke-upon-Trent -	22	12	34	64·7	35·2
Newcastle-under-Lyme -	8	10	18	44·4	55·5
Burslem and Wolstanton	18	14	32	56·2	43·7
Totals - - -	88	44	132	67·	33·

The next table shows the proportion in which the schools are provided by the Church of England and by others, giving 72 schools of the Church of England to about 28 of all others.

TABLE 8.—This Table shows how the Return was filled up for 184 Schools in the Unions of Dudley, Stoke-upon-Trent, Newcastle-under-Lyme, and Burslem and Wolstanton.

The non-denominational schools are chiefly British schools.

UNION.	Schools.				Per-centage of total Number returned.		
	Church of England.	Denominational.	Non-Denominational.	Total.	Church of England.	Denominational.	Non-Denominational.
Dudley - - -	47	17	2	66	71·21	25·75	3·03
Stoke-upon-Trent -	36	12	2	50	72·	24·	4·
Newcastle-under-Lyme -	20	2	6	28	71·4	7·1	21·
Burslem and Wolstanton	30	9	1	40	75·	22·5	2·5
Total - - -	133	40	11	184	72·	21·	6·

The following table shows the proportion of schools under Government inspection to be rather more than twice as great as those not under such inspection.

TABLE 9.—PUBLIC WEEK-DAY SCHOOLS.

UNION.	Number of Schools.			Per-centage of Schools.	
	Under Government Inspection.	Not under Government Inspection.	Total.	Under Government Inspection.	Not under Government Inspection.
Dudley - - -	30	36	66	45'45	54'54
Stoke-upon-Trent -	27	8	35	77'1	22'8
Newcastle-under-Lyme	19	4	23	82'6	17'3
Burslem and Wolstanton	27	3	30	90'	10'
Total - - -	103	51	154	67'	32'

The next table relates only to "private schools," and shows the proportion of the scholars returned as being in average daily attendance to the number belonging to the school.

TABLE 10.—PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

UNION.	Number of Private Schools that made Returns of Average Daily Attendance.	Number of Scholars belonging to the foregoing Schools.	Average Number of Scholars in Daily Attendance in the foregoing Schools.	Per-centage of the Scholars in Average Daily Attendance.
Dudley - - -	269	6,578	5,662	86'07
Stoke-upon-Trent -	133	3,471	2,975	85'7
Newcastle-under Lyme -	34	1,020	918	90'
Burslem and Wolstanton	85	2,174	1,860	85'5
Total - - -	521	13,243	11,415	85'

It will be seen by the foregoing tables that both *public* and *private* schools have increased in number since 1851. But it will also be observed that the proportion of the one class to the other is very different from that stated at the last census for the whole of England. Instead of private schools being in the proportion

of two-thirds of the whole, they are in these districts shown to be 560 private schools to 184 public schools, or almost exactly three-fourths of the whole. Probably this difference arises chiefly from the very numerous dame schools, especially in the Dudley Union, where the occupations of the mothers and grown up girls make it profitable to send the youngest children to what is called a "house school." For it is certain that throughout the districts to which my inquiry has extended, the number of other private schools has greatly fallen off during the whole of the period during which National and British and other public schools have been multiplied and extended. This is more especially the case with boys' schools, which in these districts are now almost extinct under the pressure of this competition. Parents of the middle class are content to send their boys to these schools, in many of which it is certain that they get a better English education, which is all that parents in this district value, than was procurable in a majority of private schools. Sometimes this is carried to an extent apparently unjustifiable. For instance, the incumbent of a district kept two of his sons till after 13 years of age at a National school, which although well conducted was attended by the children of nearly, or with the exception of the Roman Catholic school, of the very lowest class, and certainly did not afford any association desirable for his children. This case was the more remarkable as the respectable grammar school was open to him, where an education befitting a gentleman's children, could have been secured to his sons. But although many parents are content to send their boys to National or British or other schools of the like character, those who can afford the expense are often reluctant to send their daughters thither, and thus a considerable number of very good private girls' schools still remain, and many of these are conducted by very respectable persons, who seem to me to be much more capable as well as successful teachers and trainers than the persons whom I have met with who at one time or other have conducted boys' schools. In one case, that of Mr. Roby, of Montpelier Street, Newcastle, a boys' private school in high repute at the beginning of the century under his father's, his brother's, and his own management, having under the competition of the other schools ceased to be remunerative, was in 1851 converted into a girls' school under the conduct of his wife, and is successful.

One instance of a private school successfully competing with a well-conducted and successful National school is that of Mr. Bridgeman, of Bagnall Street, Newcastle. He was for some years master of the National school, where he acquired the character of an able teacher of youth. He set up a boys' school in the same street, exactly opposite the National school. He conducts his school in the main upon the system practised in the National schools, and succeeds partly through his reputation as a teacher, and partly because many parents are glad to secure for their children better associates than the mass of the children who in this poor neighbourhood attend the well-managed National school. He has usually

about 150 scholars, generally in their appearance, with a few exceptions of better clothed boys, of the same class as those who attend the National school, paying from 7s. 6d. to 13s. a quarter.

But the comparison of the mere numbers of public and private schools would be wholly misleading. The number of scholars attending there respectively are, in 184 public schools, 18,755, or about an average of 100 to each school, while the number of scholars attending 560 private schools is only 13,655, or an average of less than 25 to each school.

Sunday Schools.

The first table given above shows the number of all such schools in these districts at the time of my inquiry to have been 410, attended by 52,086 scholars, in which the sexes are nearly equal.

In all these schools the instruction is exclusively religious, and every one of them is connected with some church or chapel. The Dissenters are very active in promoting and maintaining these schools, especially the Primitive Methodists, and the attendance of members of these persuasions, as teachers, is exemplary.

The attendance of scholars in all such schools as I have visited has been chiefly of children, especially in the Sunday schools of the Church of England. In those of other denominations there is commonly a considerable number of young men, and a smaller number of young women, and a few persons of both sexes, of mature and some few of even advanced age. Generally speaking the scholars of the day school connected with the church or chapel, are required to attend the Sunday school held at the same church or chapel; but as every day school that I have visited, except those of Roman Catholics, has contained children of different denominations, this rule is usually not insisted on as to those scholars who belong to another denomination.

It is generally admitted that the teaching and discipline of a Sunday school is not interesting to those who have had the benefit of education in a good day school, where the subject matters of instruction are more varied and are taught with more animation, and generally, especially by trained teachers, with more skill and knowledge. Boys especially, when they leave the day school, being to a great extent their own masters, generally also cease to attend the Sunday school, if any such be connected with it. Girls somewhat more frequently continue their attendance on the Sunday school after leaving the day school.

But although the Sunday school does not seem much to advance the education of those who have had the benefit of early secular teaching, it is not to be inferred that Sunday schools are of small use in these districts. They do attract to them vast numbers of persons both of youth and of people of more advanced years, who have been otherwise wholly or almost wholly unschooled. They give to these a welcome and grateful occupation, which they would in many cases be incapable of receiving

from a more varied, active, and exacting discipline. They who attend are induced to be washed and dressed early on the Sunday, commonly for two and sometimes for three attendances, both at school and at the service of the church or chapel. They are thus drawn from bad habits on the Sunday, which is otherwise the day on which the sloth and domestic dissipation of persons of this class is apt to be the most indulged, or on which the greater dissipation of the Monday is initiated. It is indisputable that Sunday schools, though of comparatively little use to those who have been already instructed in the day schools, are nevertheless most beneficial in their operation on a very large class of persons who without them would not, during the whole course of their lives, receive any literary education at all, and would be left wholly to their own ignorant devices for occupying the dreary waste which the Sunday otherwise is to the great majority of the uninstructed people in these districts.

TABLE 11.—Showing the AVERAGE ATTENDANCE of SCHOLARS in SUNDAY SCHOOLS as compared with the Numbers belonging to the Schools.

UNION.	Number of Sunday Schools that made Returns as to Attendance.	Number of Scholars belonging to the foregoing Schools.	Average Number in Sunday Attendance in foregoing Schools.	Per-centage of Scholars in Average Sunday Attendance.
Dudley - - -	131	22,034	17,479	79·32
Stoke-upon-Trent -	115	13,548	10,070	74·3
Newcastle-under-Lyme -	45	3,433	2,564	74·6
Burslem and Wolstanton	113	12,718	9,450	74·3
Totals - - -	404	51,735	39,563	75·5

Evening Schools.

The first table above shows that the evening schools in these two districts are 89 in number, of which 32 are in the Dudley Union, 39 in the Stoke Union, 15 in the Wolstanton and Burslem Union, and only 3 in the more wide-spread Union of Newcastle.

It shows the number of attendants in the whole of these schools to be 2,604 males to 756 females, or in the proportion of about 7 males to 2 females.

These schools are of the utmost importance and of the most decided advantage to such districts as those of Dudley and the

Potteries. They are in many instances, as amongst colliers, quarrymen, and mere labourers, very often the only means of acquiring the first rudiments of reading or writing, or arithmetic. It is a frequent subject of admiration to a visitor that men so uncouth, so hardhanded, should, so often as these men do, bend themselves gently and submissively to the discipline of the evening school, and so often make really important progress in their studies. It is obvious that many more of this class of men have strong inclinations to obtain knowledge than is commonly supposed. But most of them recognize also some very attainable benefit to be secured to themselves by a power to count and note a tale of the matters they are engaged in producing, and see a certainty of wordly advancement in the acquisition.

But a still greater number of the attendants at evening schools in these two districts of Dudley and the Potteries, are young men who have already had some instruction at school which they seek to improve, while others desire to make new acquisitions. Arithmetic and geometry are frequently pursued. Book-keeping, as opening the way to a lucrative and respectable advancement, is a very common object of study. In some instances drawing is practised. And in the pottery district recitation is practised and the art of rhetoric studied, not always without considerable improvement in articulation and manner, though more generally without much other effect than the making a foolish ambition more ridiculous.

Observation has been made in the foregoing remarks upon the singular use of schoolmasters and teachers otherwise too accomplished for the work they have to do in day schools where the attendance of scholars ceases at such an early age as is general in these districts. These make the very best teachers in evening schools, where the scholars are already possessed of the rudiments of education. They exercise their own abilities, read up and study further the subjects they teach, and are generally gratified by the approbation and admiration of young men often themselves of superior natural abilities and sometimes of very respectable acquirements.

I am satisfied, by my inquiry, of the vast importance of evening schools in these districts. I am assured on all hands that if it could be managed, multitudes of young men would be glad to give a more frequent attendance than is now possible; and I know of no other way in which this object is so likely to be effected, and the number and efficiency of these schools to be increased, as by the increase of trained teachers for the day schools.

Factory Schools.

In the Dudley Union there are no factory or print works subject to the provisions of the Factory Acts.

In another district I found two silk mills and a cotton mill kept exempted from the educational provisions of the Factory Acts by the employment of children only who have attained the age of eleven years in the silk mills, and of thirteen years of age in

the cotton mills. In these two silk mills, employing about 400 children, the children generally are amongst the least instructed and the worst mannered and the most immoral in their neighbourhood. A large portion are Irish, or of Irish parentage. Their employment is of a light kind, requiring very little skill, easy to be attained. The manager of one of these mills assured me that it was impossible to discover in their work the effects of education on the children. The most skilful, those who could earn most, were generally those who had come into the mill at the earliest age, and had had the least schooling. But he could, from his position, no otherwise infer whether any child had been at school or not,—the conduct of those who had been at school not differing in the mill from that of those who had not.

Both at this mill and at the one next mentioned the conduct of the girls and women was filthy and disgusting in the extreme.

I feel myself bound by the Commissioners' instructions to state also that it is my firm conviction that in one mill which I visited, the educational provisions of the Factory Acts are systematically evaded. Many of the girls, with all possible allowance made for stunted growth, were, to my judgment, after abundant opportunities for observation of all classes of children in the neighbourhood, obviously under eleven years of age. Many, I am confident, were not above nine years old, especially in the upper story of some of the mills, many were barely so much. This, like the other mills, has from a quarter to a third of the spindles always idle for want of hands; and I witnessed the application of two girls for employment, one of whom was certainly under nine years of age, and both were ordered to come to work the next morning. One day when the hands knocked off work at twelve o'clock a full half of the number seemed to be under eleven years of age. A gardener at work opposite, with whom I spoke on the subject, expressed the same opinion, without knowing at all what my opinion was. Three of the youngest looking children, with whom I talked, readily answered that they were past eleven; but one of them could not tell me further what his age actually was; and the mother of one of these children told me with equal readiness that her daughter was past twelve, having been in the mill a year, while the girl herself said she was turned eleven only three weeks ago.

As to the two mills just mentioned, I am satisfied that the rule is fairly carried out of employing no children under 11 and 13 years of age respectively.

The silk mill at Silverdale, belonging to Messrs. Walker and Co., is in my judgment very respectably conducted. Here no children are employed under 11 years of age, and 22 are on half-time, attending the school the other half. In the mill these children are not distinguishable from the others by any superiority as workers, but the Messrs. Walker both assured me that their experience of the older workers was, that education made them better behaved and more tractable.

These mills are situated in a country recently opened, and risen into great importance as a coal and iron district. The

majority of the inhabitants, and particularly of the parents of children employed in these mills, are colliers, pitmen, and forgemen. These men are generally very brutal and dissolute in their habits, the forgemen particularly, who mostly come from about Bilston, in South Staffordshire, are complained of by the old residents as ruffians and blackguards. They are a roving, circulatory population, coming, getting into debt, and going away again, very few staying 12 months, many, especially forgemen, not a month; the colliers being somewhat more settled. They get high wages, and rather think it derogatory to send their children to the mill; some of whom, however, are sent for the sake of the education they get at the factory school, which is very well appointed and conducted. At 14 years of age they are taken away from the mill to the pits and forges. A greater portion of the children up to this age are neither at work nor at school. The supply of labour of children at the mill is very deficient. Even since 500 new houses have been built and filled in the last 10 years, during which period the Messrs. Walker became proprietors of the mill, there has generally been one-quarter of the mill standing still for want of hands, and the deficiency of hands must, they say, have been much greater formerly.

I have, to the extent to which I have formed any decided opinion, anticipated in my general remarks all that I should have to offer in relation to the remaining parts of the Commissioners' instructions.

I beg, in conclusion, to express my thanks to the Commissioners for the excellent instructions by which my inquiry has been guided and made easy, and for their kindness and that of the secretaries and the other officers of the Commission in every instance in which I have required assistance.

I have the honour to be,
My Lord Duke and Gentlemen,
Your most faithful and obedient Servant,
GEORGE COODE.

To the Commissioners
Appointed to inquire into the
State of Popular Education in England.

APPENDIX.

I was favoured by the Reverend Mr. Lewis, the Rector of Sedgeley, whose age and great experience makes any information given by him valuable, with the following description of the district of which Dudley is a centre, and with the answers which follow to the queries prepared by the Commissioners.

G. C.

SOUTH STAFFORDSHIRE AND NORTHERN PART OF WORCESTERSHIRE.

This district is one of the most remarkable parts, perhaps, of England, and contains within the circuit of a few miles more wealth and a greater amount of poverty than any other or most other parts of Great Britain.

Many heaths, woods, and wastes, which within the memory of man were literally so, now swarm with population, drawn thither by mining operations and the invention of the steam-engine, and increased with Israelitish progression. The number of inmates of the houses throughout the district is in the proportion of $5\frac{1}{2}$ or $5\frac{1}{4}$ to each house, though it is no uncommon thing for a man to have 10, 12, or 14 children, and, to the writer's knowledge, one man, whose widow died lately, had 37 children, all reared in a very small cottage; he had three wives, who had respectively 12, 12, and 13,—one born after his death. How many grandchildren and great grandchildren he had the writer never learned.

The State of the Church.

Within the last half century there was scarcely a parish within eight or ten miles in a circuit from Dudley, with the exception of a town or two, which had more than one church and one clergyman, and occasionally one clergyman to two churches. Now, in most of the parishes within that circuit, there are five churches on the average, and frequently ten clergymen.

Schools and Education.

Sunday schools had done much for the rising population, but besides these the means of education were very small.

Dudley had its Grammar school and Blue Coat school, and one or two private schools, now it has many National and similar schools.

Rowley parish had two small endowed schools and a dame school.

Halesowen had its small Grammar school and a dame school.

Oldbury had a small endowed Presbyterian school and a dame school or two.

Westbromwich had its boarding school for young gentlemen and a day school connected with it.

Tipton had a small school or two supported by voluntary contributions.

Kingswinford had a private school or two.

Sedgeley had a small endowed Presbyterian school, and one or two small dame schools.

Other parishes, both in towns and country, now very populous, had scarcely any schools of any kind.

But now all the above-mentioned have numerous National and other schools, capable of giving education to a vast portion of the population of the surrounding districts. All is not done by the efforts made towards educating the labouring classes which could be wished in the good effected, but much good has been effected. And what, we may ask, would have been the state of our population if these efforts had not been made? What will be the state of the population in fifty years, when it will have, perhaps, doubled itself, if efforts are not continued, and their wants anticipated? The working population are a civil, inoffensive set, and very few crimes of a serious nature ever occur. With too many exceptions, the people are not generally a drunken people. They need the support and refreshment of beer, but we may go through a population of upwards of a hundred thousand any day and not meet a drunken person. In going through the country at night (not perhaps the towns) at ten or eleven o'clock, all the people have retired to rest, and not one person is to be met for miles in passing through a dense population. A drunken man is the exception, and I have seen more drunken men in one day on entering a small Welsh village than I have seen in my own parish for months. I have seen but one drunken woman for years, and she evidently a stranger passing through, and the butt of everybody.

Nevertheless, there must be a great deal too much drinking, judging from the number of public houses and beershops, though the effects do not meet the eye; and the great evil after all that we have to contend with in refining young men's minds and manners, and in extending their education, and persuading them to aim at self-improvement, is the many inducements held out by the keepers of beershops, &c.

(Signed) W. LEWIS.

REPLIES TO QUESTIONS.

SEDGELEY and the surrounding DISTRICTS, embracing the whole MINING DISTRICT of SOUTH STAFFORDSHIRE and NORTH WORCESTERSHIRE.

I.

Supply and Demand of Education.

1. Generally speaking, have the poor people in the district with which you are acquainted received elementary instruction? If they have, have they forgotten, or do they still remember, what they were taught?
 1. The poor in this district have to a considerable extent received elementary instruction, but not to the extent of their means and the opportunities afforded them. The knowledge they have obtained has in a measure been kept up and improved, as far as reading and religious instruction, by means of Sunday schools.
 2. If they have not received elementary instruction, does this arise from a failure in the supply or in the demand for education?
 2. In former years, say within the last 25 or 30 years, there was a great deficiency in the supply of the means of instruction for the children of the poor, or the almost non-existence of school buildings. Now the lack of elementary instruction among them arises from the too great indifference on the part of the parents, and from finding them useful at home, the boys in working, the girls in working, nursing, or household work, even at an early age, in order to liberate their mothers from these duties to enable them to work, particularly as regards nailers.
 3. If from a failure in the supply, are there too few schools or too few teachers? State any facts within your own knowledge in illustration of the want of which you complain.
 3. This district is now very generally supplied with school accommodation, but school-rooms of a smaller description than those which have been generally erected might be built with great advantage to the poor in villages with considerable population too far distant from the central parochial schools; the children to be taught the elements of education, as reading, writing, a little arithmetic, hymns, &c., by a young or middle-aged competent woman of the locality; these are self-supporting, except books, coals, and a small gratuity.
4. If from a failure in the demand, is the cause of that failure a want of will or a want of power on the part of the parents to procure education for their children? and is it usually a total failure in not sending children to school at all, or a partial one in not keeping them there long enough?
 4. There is a want of will, and too frequently a want of power, on the part of parents, especially of the latter, where there are many children and small wages. They cannot afford properly to clothe them, nor to pay for all they might send, although the charge be small. There is a partial failure in not keeping them at school long enough, as the work of boys is valuable in the district, and girls are required to nurse, &c. *e. g.*, I met a troop of about half a dozen little girls but lately, and this is no uncommon case, who ran before me to drop their "curtsey." Each of them had a child in its arms, which it was nursing, and as I

made this remark to them they set up a merry laugh, and ran away. These ought each to have been at school.

N. B.—I have observed the following fact, and have pointed it out to others, as I have been walking through the most populous parts of the district inhabited by the poor, that at any point, wherever I might stand, at most parts of the day, when the weather is fine, that thirty children may be seen within ken, from infancy to about ten years old. This I may say is the case throughout the district in thickly inhabited places, and under the circumstances, the number ranging from twenty-seven to thirty-three. I have counted this number even in a field near to a considerable knot of houses, the number consisting of infants and their nurses, the latter about seven or eight years old.

5. If it is want of will, what is the cause of that want?

5. Difficult to say. Probably in most instances this arises from ignorance in the parents, who do not value the instruction which they themselves have done without, and perhaps in consequence of this ignorance thinking that education is slow work, and imagine all elements may be learnt in a very short time. It may be in some instances that the education the children receive does not raise them above their labouring condition, valuing little that training and improvement of the mind or elevation of character which makes man superior in his position to what he would otherwise have been.

6. Do parents neglect to educate their children on the ground that the education within their reach is not adapted to their wants? and, if so, are they right or wrong in that opinion, and what is the proof that they are right or wrong?

6. Not on this ground. The education they at all care about is reading, with spelling, writing, and arithmetic. Grammar and geography the parents care little about, provided the others are well taught. A clergyman in the neighbourhood in a locality containing many of the superior class of labourers, who was a great linguist and good mathematician, thinking that many young people might wish to advance themselves by a knowledge of these subjects, especially of mathematics, to help them in their engineering, put out circulars for evening classes, or individual instruction, on moderate terms; he had not one application.

7. Do they neglect it on the ground of the incompetence of the teacher?

7. No; there is generally no incompetency in the teacher. If the teachers bring the children fairly forward, parents are satisfied. They remove their children if the teachers are severe or neglectful, and the parents are frequently quick in discerning, especially those who are anxious about the progress of their children.

8. Do they neglect it on the ground of difference in religious belief from the managers of schools within their reach?

8. They care little about the religious belief of the managers of schools, provided the children are well instructed, and not compelled to attend the place of worship with which the school is connected, or to embrace the religious belief of the managers. In a neighbourhood where all religious creeds prevail, the people are, perhaps, too indifferent to what class of Christians they attach themselves, and remove from one to another on receiving any slight offence, or for convenience, not discerning the distinction; but they will not submit to compulsion from managers of schools. Their masters too frequently use too much compulsory influence over them, when these masters are not enlightened

men, and have risen from low circumstances and labour, to employ others. This often amounts to oppression, with regard to the place of worship those they employ shall attend, or which they shall not attend.

9. Do they neglect it on the ground that they cannot afford to forego wages earned by their children?

9. This is a great cause of neglect after the age of nine or ten, as the labour of boys is much sought after.

10. If unwillingness to lose wages is the cause, what is the value of the labour of children under 15 in the district with which you are acquainted? Are there any, and what special circumstances in the relations between employers and labourers which affect the attendance of children at school? Does female labour prevail, and does this affect the education of girls?

10. The wages they earn is, from ten years old to fifteen, from 2s. 6d. by gradation to 12s. and upwards, according to age and nature of employment. No special circumstances that I am aware of. Female labour prevails, especially in making nails, at which employment they commence early.

11. How is the unwillingness of parents to send their children to school affected—

(a.) By prizes or certificates for attendance?

11. (a.) Prizes, if of considerable amount, have the effect of keeping children at school. Certificates please; but have no effect on their longer attendance.

(b.) By the quality of the instruction given?

(b.) The quality has some effect.

(c.) By the character of the school and schoolmaster?

(c.) Also the character of the school and master and mistress.

(d.) By the particular systems of school management?

(d.) This, perhaps, has little effect.

(e.) By the demand of school pence?

(e.) The demand of school pence has little effect, except in large families or children of widows. Some would willingly give more for more special attention to their children, distinguished from others.

(f.) By instruction given gratuitously?

(f.) Gratuitous instruction might be attended with advantage with the poorer families, but being of a ragged school description, many parents out of self-respect, and who wish to keep their children distinct from the very lowest, might remove their children.

(g.) By experience of the advantages of education in obtaining employment, or otherwise?

(g.) Some parents hoping to raise their children to situations in some office, as writing clerk, might be induced to keep their boys at school longer.

12. If parents are unable to send their children to school, what prevents them? If poverty prevents them, how does it operate? What is the evidence that they are really unable, and not merely indifferent on the subject?

12. Poverty and large families in most instances. Nursing keeps girls at home, and frequently boys, who are often put to this employment until able to go to work. When wages are small and families are large, it is most difficult for parents to manage. A father may gain but 12s. or at most 14s. a week at nailing and other employment, and

the mother with six children cannot in this case work much to help the father, and this is the most difficult time of struggles in married people. When families are numerous and children young, house rent at the minimum is 2s., fire 2s., which leaves but 8s. or 10s. for food and clothing for a whole family, leaving out education.

Being long accustomed to the sound of a nailer's hammer in making nails about two and a half inches or three inches long, I once, in my own mind, counted the number of blows to each nail, and thought it amounted to about forty before the nail was completed. On passing the shop of a man who was making that description of nails, I stopped to count the blows he gave, and found them from thirty-eight to forty-two in number. I entered into conversation with him, and asked him how many he could make in a day, he said a thousand if he worked hard. I asked how many blows it took to a nail, he said about forty. I asked what he got for making the thousand, which is exclusive of iron, and he said 1s. 8½d. So that besides shop rent, coal for his shop fire, and blowing the fire with his bellows between each nail, he has to give forty thousand blows a day to earn 1s. 8½d. Think of this, ye pleasure seeking gentlemen of England! think of their wives and children, ye novel reading ladies! and some of these have as noble blood in their veins, and are not far removed from nobility itself. Yea, some a little higher in the scale can trace their origin to royalty itself. Think of their comfortless chambers to rest in at night, with no stead, or if one, not so comfortable as the floor itself, with a thin mattrass of straw or flock, and nothing to cover themselves with but a rag of a sheet or some like covering and the clothes they wear in the day, even in the most inclement season of winter. Yet some families, as their children grow up, get considerable wages among them, and do very comfortably. I remember once having some charity money to dispose of, on going round I called at a house and asked the woman if a little money would be acceptable, she said it would; on reflection I remembered she had a strong working husband and four or five lusty sons grown up who worked in the mines, or at some labour connected therewith, and I said to her, "But you don't want help, as you must get a good deal of money into your house in the course of a week." (She) "But I do want." "But you get 5l. or 6l. a week." (She) "Yes, I should think we got that much." But this I fear is beside the question.

13. Is the supply of schools and teachers proportioned to the want of them, or are there too few in some, and what neighbourhoods, and too many in others; or how otherwise?

13. The supply of schools and teachers I should imagine is very generally diffused throughout the neighbourhood, except as above stated; smaller schools are needed in some outstanding localities. There is no case that occurs to me where the schools are too far distant for children of any size to attend. There is no place that I know of where the schools are too numerous for the population. The great need now is of making the schools as efficient as possible by a supply of good and proper teachers, and funds sufficient to carry on the school without crippling the efforts of the managers.

II.

Government and Finance of Schools.

1. Are you acquainted with the working of any, and what systems of central aid and inspection, or of inspection alone?

1. I am inspector, as rural dean of Hinley, of the schools belonging to the Church of England within that rural deanery, but a most

inefficient one and neglectful, owing to the many demands on my time in an extensive parish. This, in connexion with the Diocesan School Society of Lichfield. I am also somewhat acquainted with the Government inspection.

2. What in your opinion is the result of the variety of systems for these purposes now in operation? Do they stimulate, or do they interfere with each other?
2. The results of these inspections I consider good, and that they (the Government and diocesan) do not interfere, but assist each other. I consider some of the reports of the Government inspectors to have been very injudicious and injurious. A clergyman is always glad of the assistance of an inspector, but when the faults and defects of his school are made public, which he himself knows and endeavours to amend and cannot, it adds considerably to the pains of his labours and anxieties to have these exposed to the whole nation. A stranger cannot know all circumstances. A school has been unfavourably reported when an inspector has come in unexpectedly at the opening of a school when that school had been broken up by a bad temporary master, and the master and mistress had just entered on their duties, and had to organize it afresh.
3. Does the prospect of assistance from the Committee of Council, or from a central society, or either, and which of them, tend to increase or to diminish local subscriptions and exertions?
3. I do not think that assistance from the Committee of Council (Government), or other help, affects local subscriptions either way, except in the erections of school-houses, when it stimulates the clergy (managers) to exertion and the wealthy to give.
4. Does the system of Government or other central inspection affect the efficiency of schools inspected, and how?
4. I think the system of inspection, whether Government or other, affects the efficiency of the schools, by stimulating both masters and the clergy in their exertions.
5. Do any and which of the terms upon which the Government grant is made affect in practice the independent management of the schools assisted?
5. I am not sufficiently acquainted with the terms on which the Government grant is made to answer this question fully. I have heard objections raised, and some have refused assistance, because it took away their independency of action in the management of their schools, and did not allow them full control. The granting assistance only on the condition of having boarded floors has been objected against on the ground that it would be difficult, and in some cases impossible, to raise the required sum to re-floor the rooms with boards, and when the good and substantial quarry floors were considered more healthy, and in every respect better.
6. Have private-advantage schools declined or otherwise since the establishment of the Government system of grants?
6. Perhaps declined, in diminishing the number of dame schools.
7. It has been said that the terms of the Government grant, and particularly those which relate to the capitation grant, are such that it is useless to the promoters of schools in poor places. Is this so in your opinion, and on what facts is your opinion founded?
7. I am not capable of giving my opinion on this subject, but cannot conceive how a capitation grant can be useless to the promoters of schools in poor places, but the contrary.

8. What is, generally speaking, the financial condition of the schools with which you are acquainted? Are they self-supporting, in debt, or supported by subscriptions? Where the resident population is principally poor, do non-resident proprietors usually subscribe? If not, who does? How does the payment of school fees operate? Is it popular with parents? Does it deprive those who are very poor of the use of the schools, and bring in children of a richer class?

8. Schools are generally in difficulties as to financial matters. It is a difficult matter to raise sufficient funds for masters, mistresses, repairs, and books and apparatus. They are supported by the pay of the children, aided by subscriptions and collections, but generally in debt. The non-resident proprietors subscribe, and a few of the more wealthy residents. The parents do not object to pay school fees when small. They perhaps value the school more, and when the pay is not too low, as, so far as they can pay, they value a thing according to its price. In some cases payment deprives the poor of the use of the schools, but not to a great extent, but does not bring in the richer class. A clergyman or subscriber might with advantage recommend children for free admission, and in some cases payment is made by subscribers for the education of the poorest children.

Note.—By the increase of the number of schools, proprietors frequently withdraw their subscriptions from those already in existence for new ones that are erected, which they think have a greater claim on them, or divide their subscriptions; hence the greater difficulty of supporting the older established schools.

III.

Efficiency of Schools and Schoolmasters.

1. What is your experience as to the comparative efficiency of—

(a.) Public and private schools?

1. (a.) At public, that is parochial schools, the children are more correctly taught than at private ones.

(b.) Endowed and unendowed schools?

(b.) Endowed schools, when liberally endowed and under good supervision, with thoroughly competent masters, excel unendowed.

(c.) Inspected and uninspected schools?

(c.) Inspected schools are more efficient than uninspected, unless where the clergyman gives his almost undivided attention to his schools.

2. What is your experience as to—

(a.) Evening schools?

2. (a.) Evening schools I consider of the greatest advantage, from my late experience of them, when a sufficient number of gratuitous teachers can be induced to give their time to them.

(b.) Industrial schools?

(b.) I have no experience of industrial schools, but do not think they would succeed in this neighbourhood.

(c.) Half-time systems, as means of keeping up what has been learned at ordinary schools, or prolonging attendance there?

(c.) The half-time system I think might be introduced with great advantage, or a system allowing those above a certain age, who had begun to work, to come for instruction when they had leisure time.

(*a. b.*) These are means of keeping up previously gained knowledge, and prolong their attendance at school.

Note.—In a case which came within my own knowledge, in my own school, a boy, a nailer by trade, who had been educated in our school, and had left to work when he arrived at the age of fifteen or sixteen, wished to improve himself, and attended the school regularly every day. I learned that his plan was to rise at six and work till half-past eight, then to clean himself and have his breakfast, and be at school by nine o'clock. He left at twelve, and had his dinner and worked till two. Then he came to school and remained till five. He then went home, had his tea, and worked till ten. He thus worked eight hours in the day, and gained as much, probably, as he would have done without going to school, and had six hours at school.

3. What is your experience as to the masters and mistresses trained at normal schools? Has their training adapted them, or has it failed to adapt them in any, and what, particulars, for their duties; and especially for the more elementary branches of education, particularly reading? Do they show a tendency to be dissatisfied with their position, and on what grounds?

3. The masters and mistresses trained at normal schools are generally, so far as I have been able to judge, well adapted for their work, and keep their schools in good order and under good control, seeing that the elementary branches, including reading, are well taught. Occasionally there are instances of a tendency to be dissatisfied, and they leave. In one instance a trained mistress engaged to a school in one of our most desirable parishes, but having then but a temporary school-room till those of a better description were finished, on coming and seeing the school, bade the carman who had driven her to wait till she had inspected the rooms and accommodation, as she did not think they would suit her; and, being dissatisfied, bade him drive her back to the station. In the case of the master of a school under my own inspection who had been trained at a normal school, I found him questioning little boys on the most abstruse parts of grammar, on which subject the boys were most profoundly ignorant. He would scarcely allow me to inspect his school, though I was extra civil and conciliatory in manner, and on leaving, he said, with the greatest air, although one of the most inferior of his kind, and displaying a gold ring whilst he ran his fingers through his hair, "This place will not do for me," and he was much disappointed, as he expected to find a school of a very superior description, where a very superior education was required, but he could teach those children nothing. I endeavoured to persuade him to stay and do good among the poor and ignorant, but I heard that he left in a few days.

4. Does the system adopted by the Committee of Council in reference to teachers trained at normal schools make it difficult to obtain competent teachers for uninspected schools?

4. Owing to the vast increase in the number of schools it would now be impossible to obtain a sufficient supply of competent school-masters and mistresses unless trained for their office. Competent teachers could scarcely be obtained for uninspected schools in sufficient numbers, as in former years when schools were few.

5. What is your experience of the working of the system of pupil-teachers? Do the claims of the scholars and pupil-teachers on the master clash with each other; and if so, which are usually neglected? Where there are no pupil-teachers, how

is teaching conducted? and what is the comparative efficiency of schools at which they are and are not found?

5. I am not competent, from my present knowledge, to answer the former part of this inquiry. Where there are no pupil-teachers the teaching is conducted by the aid of monitors unpaid or slightly rewarded.

6. Is there any disproportion between the supply and demand of schoolmistresses, and to what cause is it to be attributed?

7. What is your experience as to the efficiency of masters of endowed schools, and as to the purity of their appointments?

7. As far as my experiences goes, which is very limited, the masters are efficient and their appointments just.

8. What is your experience as to the efficiency of masters of private adventure schools, and as to the nature of their previous occupations?

9. What is your opinion of the subject matter of education in various classes of schools, in the district with which you are acquainted, in respect of—

(a.) Its tendency to develop the mental powers?

(a.) So far as it goes, with attention on the part of the teachers and visitors to inspect and examine, it tends to develop the mental faculties.

(b.) Its tendency to supply specific information of practical value?

(b.) Yes; so far as age will allow.

(c.) Its tendency to fit the pupil for his future course of life?

(c.) It better adapts him for his future course of life.

10. Is it usual for parents to send their children to schools in connexion with other religious persuasions than their own? and if so, upon what terms as to special provision for their religious instruction or attendance upon religious worship, and are such terms usually enforced in practice?

10. Yes; where they believe the teaching is good, with no stipulation for religious instruction, only not to be compelled to attend the place of worship if not of that creed.

IV.

Intellectual Results of Education.

1. What is your experience as to the comparative value of educated and uneducated workmen and workwomen as such?

1. Employers care but little whether their workmen or workwomen are educated or not, so they work to their advantage. The uneducated are but too frequently mere machines, though there are often found among them very intelligent people of keen observation.

2. What is your experience as to the value which poor people who have received a good school education set upon it in after life?

2. They value it, and the more as they grow older. In after life the poor frequently regret the want of education, and that there were not the means afforded them when young that there are now. To be able to read, they say would help them so to while away many a weary hour that now hangs heavy upon them. They might now amuse and improve their mind, which now preys upon itself. They think of troubles, whether real or imaginary.

3. How far do they avail themselves of such means of keeping up or extending their acquirements, as reading rooms, lectures, evening schools, and the like ?
3. They do not avail themselves to the extent they might, though some are glad of evening schools to brush up what knowledge they had obtained, and getting thence a little impulse, pursue subjects at home.
4. Has your experience enabled you to trace any connexion between the spread of popular education, and the spread of a taste for music, singing, drawing, and other similar accomplishments amongst the poor ?
4. Very little, except so far as singing learnt by the ear.

(Signed) W. LEWIS.

Sedgeley, November 26, 1858.

I append also the information furnished to me by Lord Lyttelton, with relation to the neighbourhood of Stourbridge, which place, although on the outer border of the district apportioned to me, resembles it in most of its economical and educational relations.

G. C.

What have been your opportunities of acquiring experience respecting popular education and elementary instruction ? To what districts does your experience apply ?

Only from residence for about 30 years in, and general acquaintance with, the neighbourhood of Stourbridge; and having acted on the Diocesan Board of Education, practically confined to the Archdeaconry of Worcester.

I.

Supply and Demand of Education.

1. Generally speaking, have the poor people in the district with which you are acquainted received elementary instruction ?
If they have, have they forgotten, or do they still remember what they were taught ?
1. I apprehend they almost all received some when young ; and that they remember it, but most often very imperfectly.
2. If they have not received elementary instruction, does this arise from a failure in the supply or in the demand for education ?
2. Of late, almost wholly from failure in the demand.
3. If from a failure in the supply are there too few schools or too few teachers ? State any facts within your own knowledge in illustration of the want of which you complain.
3. Want of will almost entirely.
4. If from a failure in the demand, is the cause of that failure a want of will or a want of power on the part of the parents to procure education for their children ? and is it usually a total failure in not sending children to school at all, or a partial one in not keeping them there long enough ?
4. Both of these, but the latter much the worst.
5. If it is want of will, what is the cause of that want ?
5. Apathy and want of appreciation of the benefits of education ; and at all events preferring to make even a shilling or two a week by their children's labour as soon as they can.
6. Do parents neglect to educate their children on the ground that the education within their reach is not adapted to their wants ?

and, if so, are they right or wrong in that opinion, and what is the proof that they are right or wrong?

6. I much doubt if this ground is felt by parents to any serious extent. I believe they are glad their children should have a simple elementary education; and that they do not object to higher branches, but care very little about them.

7. Do they neglect it on the ground of the incompetence of the teacher?

7. Probably pretty often.

8. Do they neglect it on the ground of difference in religious belief from the managers of schools within their reach?

8. I should think very seldom, at least in the case of Church schools.

9. Do they neglect it on the ground that they cannot afford to forego wages earned by their children?

9. See question 6.

10. If unwillingness to lose wages is the cause, what is the value of the labour of children under 15 in the district with which you are acquainted? Are there any, and what, special circumstances in the relations between employers and labourers which affect the attendance of children at school? Does female labour prevail, and does this affect the education of girls?

10. Nailers' children will get 1s. 6d. a week a man, from eight years of age, up to 5s. or 6s. at 15, when good workmen. Others will get a little in field-work, &c., not less than the above. Nailers' daughters will get, at the same age, rather less than boys. Other girls, not much before 15.

11. How is the unwillingness of parents to send their children to school affected—

(a.) By prizes or certificates for attendance?

(b.) By the quality of the instruction given?

(c.) By the character of the school and schoolmaster?

11. All these have a perceptible effect in the number of children, and the length of their attendance; industrial work particularly, as allotments, and carpenters' shops.

(d.) By the particular systems of school management?

I do not suppose the poor care much for them apart from the former questions.

(e.) By the demand of school pence?

(f.) By instruction given gratuitously?

There is hardly any gratuitous education here. Parents can almost always pay 2d. or 3d. a week, and often they get it from rich neighbours.

(g.) By experience of the advantages of education in obtaining employment, or otherwise?

I do not know anything definite on this.

12. If parents are unable to send their children to school, what prevents them? If poverty prevents them, how does it operate? What is the evidence that they are really unable, and not merely indifferent on the subject?

12. See above.

13. Is the supply of schools and teachers proportioned to the want of them, or are there too few in some, and what neighbourhoods, and too many in others; or how otherwise?

13. Very fairly.

II.

Government and Finance of Schools.

1. Are you acquainted with the working of any, and what, systems of central aid and inspection, or of inspection alone ?
 1. The Government aid and inspection ; also diocesan inspection ; not very completely done. Aid in building from the Diocesan Board of Education.
 2. What in your opinion is the result of the variety of systems for these purposes now in operation ? Do they stimulate, or do they interfere with each other ?
 2. The diocesan systems are not very efficient here, and probably do not much affect the Government measures. The National Society sometimes sends an organizing master, who does unmixed not very important good to the small schools, of which there are many untouched by the Government system.
 3. Does the prospect of assistance from the Committee of Council, or from a central society, or either, and which of them, tend to increase or to diminish local subscriptions and exertions ?
 3. Increases them, certainly.
 4. Does the system of Government or other central inspection affect the efficiency of schools inspected, and how ?
 4. No doubt it considerably stimulates it, by the ordinary effect of publicity and rivalry.
 5. Do any and which of the terms upon which the Government grant is made affect in practice the independent management of the schools assisted ?
 5. Not at all. The "management clauses," I think, have hardly any practical effect here.
 6. Have private adventure schools declined or otherwise since the establishment of the Government system of grants ?
 6. I should say much declined.
 7. It has been said that the terms of the Government grant, and particularly those which relate to the capitation grant, are such that it is useless to the promoters of schools in poor places. Is this so in your opinion, and on what facts is your opinion founded ?
 7. There is no doubt that in *very* poor and small places the conditions of the Government aid are quite out of the reach of the promoters (when there are any) of schools. But I should not think the capitation grant among the most difficult of these conditions, at least, as relates to the requisite number of days' attendance.
 8. What is, generally speaking, the financial condition of the schools with which you are acquainted ? Are they self-supporting, in debt, or supported by subscriptions ? Where the resident population is principally poor, do non-resident proprietors usually subscribe ? If not, who does ? How does the payment of school fees operate ? Is it popular with parents ? Does it deprive those who are very poor of the use of the schools, and bring in children of a richer class ?
 8. Hardly ever self-supporting. I believe they "rub on" by subscriptions and fees, sermons and collections, &c., with an occasional extra effort. Non-resident proprietors often contribute. As to parents' payments, see above.

III.

Efficiency of Schools and Schoolmasters.

1. What is your experience as to the comparative efficiency ✓—
 - (a.) Public and private schools ?
 - (b.) Endowed and unendowed schools ?
 - (c.) Inspected and uninspected schools ?
1. (a.) Private schools for the poor are altogether insignificant here.
 - (b.) Endowed schools for the same class are mostly, with one or two great exceptions, less efficient than the ordinary unendowed ones.
 - (c.) Inspected schools are undoubtedly the best.
2. What is your experience as to (a) evening schools, (b) industrial schools, (c) half-time systems, as means of keeping up what has been learned, at ordinary schools, or prolonging attendance there.
 2. (a.) Evening schools seem to me to make very little progress, but to do some good in the way of keeping up or reviving what has been learnt.
 - (b.) *Industrial schools* hardly exist here ; but a few common schools have some industrial adjuncts (see above), which seems to work very well.
 - (c.) *Partial time* has been tried at one school (Hagley) with very fair effect in keeping some boys who certainly would otherwise have gone.
3. What is your experience as to the masters and mistresses trained at normal schools ? Has their training adapted them, or has it failed to adapt them, in any, and what, particulars, for their duties ; and especially for the more elementary branches of education, particularly reading ? Do they show a tendency to be dissatisfied with their position, and on what grounds ?
3. The masters from Salltry Training School have almost all turned out well, and are mostly well satisfied.
4. Does the system adopted by the Committee of Council in reference to teachers trained at normal schools make it difficult to obtain competent teachers for uninspected schools ?
4. I have no sufficient knowledge on this.
5. What is your experience of the working of the system of pupil-teachers ? Do the claims of the scholars and pupil-teachers on the master clash with each other ; and if so, which are usually neglected ? Where there are no pupil-teachers how is teaching conducted ? and what is the comparative efficiency of schools at which they are and are not found ?
5. It works very well here, and I do not believe there is any such "clashing" to be found. There is no question the pupil-teacher schools are much more efficient than the old ones with monitors, &c.
6. Is there any disproportion between the supply and demand of schoolmistresses, and to what cause is it to be attributed ?
6. I do not know this.
7. What is your experience as to the efficiency of masters of endowed schools, and as to the purity of their appointments ?
7. See question 1.

8. What is your experience as to the efficiency of masters of private adventure schools, and as to the nature of their previous occupations ?
8. I apprehend they are very seldom efficient. They are, I believe, mostly persons of some small education who take to it to eke out their livelihood ; but seldom with any special aptitude, and never with any special training.
9. What is your opinion of the subject-matter of education in various classes of schools, in the district with which you are acquainted, in respect of—
- (a.) Its tendency to develop the mental powers ?
- (b.) Its tendency to supply specific information of practical value ?
- (c.) Its tendency to fit the pupil for his future course of life ?
9. I should say that, as far as it goes, its effect is rather of the first kind (a), together with the general effects of moral training, than of the two latter kinds. The education here is not much of the special or specific kind.
10. Is it usual for parents to send their children to schools in connexion with other religious persuasions than their own ? and if so, upon what terms as to special provision for their religious instruction or attendance upon religious worship, and are such terms usually enforced in practice ?
10. I apprehend that dissenters' children often come to the Church schools, but not *vice versa*. I do not believe in such cases they make any provision or conditions different from other children about their religious instruction.

IV.

Intellectual Results of Education.

1. What is your experience as to the comparative value of educated and uneducated workmen and workwomen as such ?
2. What is your experience as to the value which poor people who have received a good school education set upon it in after life ?
- 1, 2. I have no sufficient knowledge on these points.
3. How far do they avail themselves of such means of keeping up or extending their acquirements as reading rooms, lectures, evening schools, and the like ?
3. They will attend lectures a good deal, but the others but little.
4. Has your experience enabled you to trace any connection between the spread of popular education, and the spread of a taste for music, singing, drawing, and other similar accomplishments amongst the poor ?
4. I should say that the general prevalence of teaching to sing had a considerable effect in improving congregational psalmody, and the formation of village choirs.

17th September 1858.

LYTTELTON.

REPORT

OF

A. F. FOSTER, Esq.

CONTENTS.

I. INTRODUCTORY :	Page
1. Three groups of population: — Colliers, Lead miners, Agricultural labourers	321
2. Comparative wealth	324
3. Reception of the inquiry	324
II. STATISTICAL FACTS ON THE SUPPLY AND DEMAND.	
1. Number of schools	325
2. Religious denominations of schools	326
3. Schools — low built	326
4. How supported	326
5. Proportion of scholars to population	327
6. Proportion of boys to girls	327
7. Usual age of leaving school	328
8. Proportion of nominal to actual attendance	328
9. Proportion of teachers to scholars	329
10. Progress since 1851	329
11. Factory schools	329
12. Evening schools	330
13. Sunday schools	330
14. Educational statistics of the mining population	332
III. CHARACTER OF THE SUPPLY ; OR, PERSONAL INQUIRY INTO THE CON- DITION OF EDUCATION :	
1. Inspected schools	334
2. Uninspected schools — Colliery — Endowed — Private adventure — Ragged — General characteristics	335
3. Sunday schools	338
4. School buildings	338
5. Matter and methods of instruction — Books — Oral instruction — Character of religious instruction	338
6. Local phenomena — Clergy and capitalists	343
7. The Beaumont schools	345
8. Educational management in a transition state	347
IV. THE DEMAND ; OR, POPULAR FEELINGS TOWARDS EDUCATION :	
1. Causes of non attendance; not want of schools; not poverty: not religious scruples	347
2. Claims of labour — Claims of domestic labour on girls — Small influence of prize schemes	348
3. Aversion and indifference to school	349
4. Prejudice against the higher branches	350
5. No desire for industrial labour at school	351
6. Desire for an education preparatory to future labour	351
7. Desire for religious education	352
8. Suggestions — Education should be obligatory — Provision for educating boys till labour age; and afterwards — Certificates of attendance and progress	352
V. RESULTS OF EDUCATION :	
1. In general	354
2. Mechanics' institutes and popular libraries	354
3. Drawing and music	355

	Page
VI. PRIVY COUNCIL SYSTEM :	
1. Its principles generally acceptable — Private liberality stimulated — No clashing with other systems — Competition among schools of different denominations	356
2. Complaints of the working in some details — Whole population not reached	357
3. Capitation grants	358
4. Pupil-teachers	359
5. Inspection	359
6. Education of teachers	360
7. Their dissatisfaction	360
8. Registration	364
9. Effects of certification on other teachers	364
10. Want of mistresses	364
11. Probation as assistants	365
12. Inconveniences from centralization	365
13. Suggestions waived	365
VII. LONDON LEAD COMPANY'S SYSTEM :	
1. The Company's miners	366
2. The Company's plan of schooling	366
3. Compulsory attendance at day-school, Sunday school, and public worship	367
4. Provisions for outlying residents or objectors	368
5. Registrations of conduct and progress	368
6. Middleton school—personal visit	369
7. Nenthead school—visit	370
8. General feelings towards the system	371
9. Views of the Clergy and others	372
10. Popular music	373
11. Drawbacks. — Mine-shops or lodgings	373

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX A.—Educational Endowments in the Unions of Durham, Auck- land, Weardale, Penrith, and Wigton	374
APPENDIX B.—Sources of Voluntary Contributions proportionally calculated	377
APPENDIX C.—Summary of Supply and Demand in the five Unions of Durham, Auckland, Weardale, Penrith, and Wigton	378
APPENDIX D.—Summary of Colliery Returns in Durham Union, prepared for the Education Commissioners' Inquiry into the State of Popular Education	379
APPENDIX E.—Summary of Lead Mining Returns for the Education Com- missioners' Inquiry into the State of Popular Education	382
APPENDIX F.—Summary of the Returns of Out-door Pauper Children between 3 and 15 Years of Age in the Unions of Durham, Auckland, Weardale, Penrith, and Wigton, in the Year 1858	383
APPENDIX G.—Denominational Summary of Sunday Schools	384
APPENDIX H.—Regulations of the Schools connected with the Mining Establish- ments of Wentworth Blackett Beaumont, Esq., M.P., in East and West Allendale and Weardale	387
APPENDIX I.—Summary of Mechanics' Institutes and Popular Libraries in the Unions of Durham, Auckland, Weardale, Penrith, and Wigton	396
APPENDIX K.—Regulations of the London Lead Company's Schools in operation since 1818	397
APPENDIX L.—Governor and Company's Middleton in Teesdale Sunday School	402
APPENDIX M.—Answers to Questions on the Supply and Demand of Education	403

REPORT of ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER A. F. FOSTER, Esq., on
the STATE of POPULAR EDUCATION in the MINING DISTRICTS
of DURHAM and AUCKLAND, WEARDALE, PENRITH, and
WIGTON, in the COUNTIES of DURHAM and CUMBERLAND.

London, July 26, 1859.

MY LORD DUKE AND GENTLEMEN,

IN presenting the following Report I beg to state that the materials upon which it is founded consist chiefly of 150 sheets of school statistics, condensed from above 3,000; 82 sheets of statistical returns from mines, collieries, iron and engine works; 25 sheets from mechanics' institutes and popular libraries; 24 sheets from relieving officers; 80 foolscap pages of evidence in manuscript from various parties; several hundred letters, chiefly from school managers and teachers; my own journal and recollections of above five months' personal observation; and my chief clerk's journal of his visit to nearly 400 schools.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS ON THE SOCIAL
 CONDITION OF THE DISTRICT.

Those portions of the counties of Durham, and Cumberland, which were allotted to me as a mining district in which to prosecute an inquiry into the state of education, I found to afford specimens of at least three groups of population, quite distinct, and in some respects essentially different from each other in their social and educational position. The Unions of Durham and Auckland include the coal miners; those of Teesdale and Weardale the lead and iron miners; while Penrith, and Wigton, are occupied by a people almost wholly engaged in agriculture. Three groups
of population.

Lowest in the social scale are the coal-miners—a recent heterogeneous, fluctuating, and rapidly-increasing population, earning high wages, which they know no way of spending but in the gratification of animal appetites. The full-grown men, who are employed as hewers, realize from 3s. to 5s. by their eight hours daily work, besides a free dwelling and an unlimited supply of coal for their own use; but their wages, which are paid once a fortnight, are too often spent in drinking and gambling several days before the next pay-day comes round. Colliers.

The colliers usually live quite as isolated communities, all the houses of each village being held by the coal owner, and appropriated exclusively to his workpeople and the small shopkeepers who supply their immediate wants. A collier village presents for the most part a miserable and repulsive aspect. It consists of parallel rows of low houses, without pavement, drainage, or enclosure, either in front or rear. Each house contains one, two, or

three, but seldom more apartments, and in some villages there are out-houses in the proportion of one to every half-dozen families; in others there are none. If a house has three rooms one is used as kitchen and sitting room; the father and mother, with the younger children, sleep in one bedroom; the grown-up sons, daughters, and lodgers occupy the other. A very low state of morals and manners might be inferred from such arrangements, in connexion with full feeding and excessive drinking; but the actual condition of the people in these respects may not be described. It has been said that it is of no use to educate the labouring classes till their dwellings are improved; it is equally true that it is useless attempting to improve their dwellings till they are in some measure prepared by education to appreciate the improvements. Till a comparatively recent period, every effort in this direction was viewed with jealousy, and met by the cry that it was an attempt "to enslave" the workmen, that is, to attach them to the spot, and abridge the easy freedom with which they quit one employment for another; or, in case of a combination against their masters, turn out of their dwellings and bivouac in the open country. Even since the fear of a "take-in" has in a great measure subsided, there remains the obstacle to domiciliary improvement arising from ignorance and evil habits. Only last year a philanthropic coal-owner built two more commodious houses for large families, and placed in one of them a household in which eleven had been accustomed to sleep in two rooms; it was presently found that the enclosed yard of the new dwelling was made available for rearing pigs, and their food was stored up in the apartment which the agent had designed for the girls to sleep in, apart from their grown-up brothers. I was informed by the medical men, who had known the district for upwards of 20 years, that adultery is matter of mere jest; such a man is known as such a married woman's "fancy man," and he freely "chaffs" the husband on the privilege he enjoys. Incest is frightfully common, and seems to excite no disgust. The language heard in the collier villages, not only between the men, but among women, boys, and girls, is profane and filthy in the extreme.

The demoralization of the colliers is in many cases aggravated by the truck system, under the slenderly evasive form of the "tommy ticket." The colliers are paid by cheques on a certain publican or shopkeeper, who acts as the banker of the employer, and lays, or ought to lay down cash for the amount of each cheque. The receiver is expected to spend the greater part before quitting the shop; if he dares to carry all, or nearly all away in money, he is certain of getting immediate notice to quit his employment.

In the midst of prevailing immorality there are, however, many worthy characters; and it is one redeeming feature that there is no attempt to infringe or evade the law which forbids female labour in these coal mines. It also bespeaks an improving condition that most of the recently built houses are more commodious than the old ones, and in many instances enclosed, or semi-

detached, or both. Likewise, that many of the miners cultivate a spot of garden ground, though at some distance from their dwellings.

The general character of the lead-miners presents a striking **Lead miners.** contrast to that of the colliers. They consist of families who have lived for ages on the spot,—a steady, provident, orderly and industrious people, engaged from year to year by the lead-owners, and generally, besides their work underground, cultivating a small farm, which in many cases is their own freehold. A high-minded people they are too, disdaining pauperism as the deepest degradation. They have been subjected to very little intermixture for ages past, as appears by their language, which differs considerably from that of the neighbouring country, approximating more to the dialect of the Lowlands of Scotland.

The mining work is performed by partnerships, generally of four, six, or eight men, who maintain the labour night and day, working by “shifts” (relays) of two or four at a time, for eight hours. To each partnership a certain number of fathoms are allotted, and the bargain is for so much a bing of eight cwt. of lead, ready for smelting. It is, therefore, the interest of the working miner to be well acquainted with the various appearances of strata and veins, that he may judge how much metal is likely to be had for so much labour. As there are several processes to be gone through before the quantity of pure metal can be ascertained, accounts are settled only once a year, but a certain allowance, called subsistence money, is advanced monthly. There is in all this much to stimulate intelligence, and a good deal of the excitement which arises from gains depending partly on industry, partly on chance.

The lead miners are remarkably intelligent and generally well educated; but not, as I shall presently show, as the result either of the quantity or quality of their schooling as compared with that of the neighbouring districts. Theirs is a literacy due at present chiefly to home influences transmitted from past generations. There are books in almost every house; attendance on public worship is the rule, not the exception; and profane language is scarcely ever heard. Here is one parish seven miles long without a public house, and without a pauper to put into the workhouse.

The labour of the lead miners is by no means so well paid as that of the colliers, and though liable to few accidents, it is deemed unfavourable to human life; but the kind solicitude of the leading employers provides timely medical aid, and has led to the formation of clubs or mutual benefit societies for further relief in cases of sickness and death. Boys are not employed under ground in the lead mines; but from twelve years of age and upwards they earn from 3s. 6d. to 6s. a week in washing the ore on the surface, during eight months of the year.

The Unions of Penrith, Wigton, Eastward, and Westward form **Agriculturists.** a part, and afford a fair specimen of an agricultural population

remarkable for the peculiarity of including a large number of small proprietors called "statesmen," reputed a rough, sturdy, intelligent class, extremely repulsive to strangers, and averse to government interference in any concernment of their social condition. Many of those who have spent their whole lives as day labourers for wages have saved some hundreds of pounds, or acquired a small piece of land. The leading educational feature here is the number of endowed elementary schools transmitted from past generations.

I found this people much more accessible and much less educated than I expected. Literature among them appears as the remains of an old civilization fast wearing out. The statesman class is rapidly diminishing, and their small holdings becoming absorbed in the larger estates of the wealthy. The prejudices of those that remain are giving way. That acquaintance with the rest of the world which has been brought about by travelling facilities and cheap newspapers, has done much to break down the ramparts of their isolation, and they may be pronounced to be in a transition state between their former habits of rude independence and those of an ordinary agricultural community. Here, as in the lead mining districts adjoining, public crimes are very rare; the prevailing vice is the want of female delicacy and reserve, not resulting, however, in general or open profligacy. It appears that girls are not often deserted when they have been imprudent; and therefore the general result is said to be that the eldest child in most families is illegitimate.

Comparative
wealth.

There is little abject poverty in the district allotted to me; and the proportion of those receiving parish relief is considerably below the average of the whole country. It is thus stated:—

Durham	-	-	-	-	2·3 per cent.
Auckland	-	-	-	-	3·3 "
Weardale	-	-	-	-	3·0 "
Penrith	-	-	-	-	3·9 "
Wigton	-	-	-	-	4·0 "

Making a general average of 3·2 per cent., whereas 4·31 is the average for the whole of England and Wales. I should add, having personally visited a large number of those receiving outdoor relief, that, with a few exceptions, they appear to be living as comfortably as most of their neighbours.

Reception of
the inquiry.

Among all these populations I have met with the most cordial reception, and been accorded every possible facility for obtaining information. The Bishops of Durham and Carlisle received me with the utmost kindness, and expressed the liveliest interest in my mission. The clergyman of each parish facilitated the search for schools by supplying a list of all within his bounds, to the best of his knowledge; the relieving officers made me lists of all the out-door paupers having children of school age; and nearly all the employers of mining labour procured me full statistics of the educational condition of the whole population connected with their works. Not one Protestant school, Sunday

or weekday, public or private, refused or neglected to furnish as full and correct returns as their generally imperfect records admitted; and where these are defective or untrustworthy, it is in almost every case to be attributed either to the want of intelligence on the part of the teacher to comprehend how the schedules should be filled, or the want of records from which to supply the particulars required. I have, however, thoroughly worked only the five unions of Durham, Auckland, and Weardale, in the county of Durham; and Penrith and Wigton in Cumberland. In these, every week-day school, public and private, has been visited either by myself or my clerk, and private notes taken at least of the general impression they conveyed, with more minute records in particular cases. Besides, I conversed more or less at length with almost all the resident clergy and other ministers of religion, the principal employers of labour and their agents, as also with medical practitioners, relieving officers, government inspectors of various kinds, and other functionaries in constant intercourse with the lower orders. I have, moreover, paid several hundred domiciliary visits among the labouring classes, and have conversed with others collected in small companies for the purpose, through the courtesy of the employers. It was extremely gratifying to find that whenever, even to the very lowest of the people, I explained that the Queen desired to know how her people in these parts were off for education, the response was ready and cordial—every heart open, and every tongue loosed, with expressions of loyal attachment to Her Majesty, and gratitude for her care over her subjects.

In two instances, one Protestant, the other Roman Catholic, there was some *ex post facto* displeasure expressed by the patrons of schools because I had obtained information in their absence, and therefore necessarily without their previous concurrence. With these exceptions my way was everywhere smooth. The Roman Catholics met me with the greatest politeness, and expressed their regret that the imperative orders of their superiors rendered it impossible for them to give me the required information. With respect to their schools I was able to obtain very little except the number of children,—a number so small as not perceptibly to affect the general results.

STATISTICAL FACTS ON THE SUPPLY AND DEMAND.

The most interesting and trustworthy facts which may be collected from the circular returns, appear to be the following:—

Within the boundaries of the five unions above mentioned, comprising an area of about 860 square miles, and a school population of 43,304, there are 222 public elementary day schools, or somewhat more than one to every four square miles and every 196 children between the ages of 3 and 15. These are exclusive of 166 private elementary schools of the same class, and 24 which may be called middle-class schools.

Number of schools.

Religious denomination of public schools.

The public day schools are thus classified with respect to religious denomination :—

	Denomination.	Number of Schools.	Total Number of Scholars belonging to the Schools.			Average Number of Scholars in daily Attendance.		
			Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1	Church of England .	168	6,798	5,421	12,219	5,173	4,017	9,189
2	Wesleyan Methodist .	6	351	184	535	288	146	434
3	New Connexion Methodist.	5	276	303	579	213	224	437
4	Roman Catholic . . .	5	191	186	377	147	137	304
5	Friends'	2	90	29	119	69	20	89
6	Non-denominational .	36	1,903	1,067	2,970	1,051	821	1,872
	Total	222	9,009	7,190	16,199	6,940	5,385	12,325

Schools—how built.

Of the public schools, 67 have owed their erection to the benevolence of single individuals or of firms employing children's labour. The remainder, amounting to 146 which have premises expressly for school purposes, have been raised by more general contributions, aided in most instances by educational societies, and in 38 cases by Government grants. The public schools afford accommodation for about 18,000 children, or 42 per cent. of all that are of school age.

How supported.

Thirty-three of the 222 public elementary schools receive annual assistance from Government, averaging nearly 38*l.* each, in salaries and capitation grants; 71 are returned as having permanent endowments averaging about 30*l.* each; but this is below the true number, the endowments not being all returned.* A very few appear to be self-supporting, while most are assisted by local subscriptions averaging 30*l.* 4*s.* to each school, or 7*s.* for each scholar.

I am sorry that I cannot fully and precisely answer the question of the Commissioners as to "what proportion of the subscriptions is derived from owners of land or tithes, what from occupiers, what from ministers of religion, and what from householders?"

APPENDIX B.

But in the Appendix these proportions are given with respect to 49 of the schools whose fees are supplemented chiefly by voluntary contributions. The following is an average :—

	In the Coal Districts.	In the Rural and Lead Mining Districts.
Landowners	27·0 per cent.	67·4 per cent.
Occupiers	1·6 "	0·7 "
Owners or lessees of mines .	56·0 "	4·8 "
Householders	0·7 "	9·7 "
Ministers of religion	14·7 "	17·4 "

APPENDIX A.

* I have made a list of all the educational endowments in my district so far as I could ascertain them from various authorities besides the school returns, and insert in Margin, as shown.

It may be generally stated on this subject, that schools attended chiefly by the children of colliers and miners are in most cases aided by few except the owners or lessees of the mines, while in the rural districts the aid is derived either wholly from the landowners, or from them and the clergy together, the latter contributing probably at least one third. The Lord Bishop of Durham and the Dean and Chapter subscribe handsomely to several of the schools; but the burden on the whole seems to fall very disproportionately on the incumbents; and it is, perhaps, owing to their modesty that my information is so partial.

The fees paid by children average about $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ a week; that is to say, 31 per cent. (omitting fractions) pay $1d.$ 31 pay $2d.$, 16 pay $3d.$, 11 pay $4d.$, 5 pay $5d.$, 4 pay $6d.$, and 2 above $6d.$ The fees of the private schools are on the whole considerably higher, but we have no figures to show what each pupil actually pays. It would seem that in my district about 10,000*l.* in round numbers are raised for popular education from the self-paying principle; 6,000*l.* from private benevolence, if the endowments are included; while 4,000*l.* are furnished by Government, including the expense of the training school, and a due allowance for the cost of inspection.

Of the 43,304, which is the estimated number of children between 3 and 15 years of age, 21,500 or almost 50 per cent. are on the books of the public and private elementary schools, the average attendance being returned as 16,000 daily. Forasmuch, however, as little account can be made of any schooling these children receive before six years of age, and as it is a comparatively rare case that the children of labouring parents can be kept at school after 13, I have estimated the numbers who are of this more limited school age, and compared it with the actual attendance. The conclusion is, that there are nearly 23,500 in these five unions between 6 and 13 years old, and of these, above 13,000, or 55 per cent., were found actually in attendance in the public and private elementary schools at the time of making the returns. It seems not unimportant to remark, that the proportion between the numbers who are, and those who might be at school varies considerably in the different unions. In Durham the per-centage is about 48, in Auckland 66, in Weardale 50, in Penrith and Wigton 58.

Proportion of scholars to school population.

APPENDIX C.

It may be interesting also to note the difference that is found in the attention given to boys and girls in the matter of education. In every case the number of boys at the public schools exceeds that of the girls, while in the private schools the girls preponderate. Taking both public and private together, however, the relative numbers stand thus,—

Proportion between boys and girls.

	Boys.	Girls.
Durham	2,954	3,111
Auckland	3,357	2,990
Weardale	1,149	1,072
Penrith	1,771	1,468
Wigton	1,984	1,605

From which it appears that in the agricultural districts, where boys are seldom turned to account till 13 or 14, and then very little during the winter, their education is much more attended to than that of the girls; whereas the earlier boy labour of the mining districts lessens the difference, and in the Durham Union, where the pressure on boys for work is heaviest, the scale is turned. A very sufficient reason for the withholding of girls from the public schools appears on Table III. of each Circular M. Out of the 129 mixed schools in my district, only 45 are supplied with mistresses.

One of Her Majesty's inspectors has remarked that in the agricultural districts of the north of England masters seem to be preferred for girls, and he attributes this to the want of proper qualifications in mistresses. The true explanation of this matter is, that most of the public schools, which, of course, were the only ones he saw, are obliged to be under a master in virtue of the endowments connected with them, and in few cases is a mistress added. But the account is more than balanced in the private schools, where girls are crowded under ignorant mistresses to learn little but sewing and knitting; so that on the whole, if there are 1,132 girls found in schools conducted exclusively by masters in the two agricultural unions, there are 1,545 in those conducted exclusively by mistresses.

Usual age for leaving school.

In the towns and collier villages children of both sexes go to school at five or six years of age, and remain "off and on" till about ten. In the agricultural districts they seldom go before seven or eight, and usually remain till 13.

Proportion between nominal and actual attendance.

It is difficult to estimate from the printed returns what proportion the average attendance bears to the number which, in a large sense, may be said to "belong to the school," that is, of those who attend "off and on," as they themselves express it. Teachers complain of the desultory attendance even more than of the early removal of children; and according to their returns the total average attendance is about three fourths of the numbers belonging to the school. Yet the numbers actually found in attendance on the day the returns were made amount to six sevenths; and this cannot be accounted for by supposing an unusual muster got up for the occasion; for throughout two entire unions and a large portion of the rest, my clerk visited each school quite unexpectedly, and took the numbers and ages on the spot. The fact is, that many children go one week and stay away another, in such wise that the teacher can reckon none as "belonging to the school," but those who have paid for the current week, and therefore the total numbers returned as scholars may not be a fair representation of all who are receiving schooling, though in a more or less irregular manner. If the 8th and 9th Tables of Circular M. had been generally and faithfully filled up, they would have afforded valuable aid in estimating the attendance. Very few, however, except trained teachers, seem to have understood these Tables, or to have kept the records necessary for filling them up; consequently these returns are very few, and these few generally untrustworthy.

In the 222 public schools there are 273 masters, mistresses, and assistants, or about one for every 60 scholars. The private teachers are 202, or one for every 21 scholars. Of the 273 public teachers, 90 have been trained at normal institutions, 58 holding certificates from the Privy Council. The latter, whose schools generally number from 100 to above 200 scholars, are assisted by 84 Government pupil-teachers and assistants. Five public teachers are registered, and three private ones have been at training schools.

The progress making in the work of education is indicated by the fact that 54 of the public schools have been opened during the last 10 years. Nothing on this point can be gathered from the circumstance that 128, or 77 per cent., of all the private ones have been commenced during the same period; because many of these are very shortlived, and possibly a larger number have been discontinued during the same lapse of time. A comparison of the numbers now attending school with those returned in the census of 1851, shows the following results for the four unions of Auckland, Weardale, Penrith, and Wigton. There are no means of comparing the progress of Durham, because there is no return for it in the census of 1851 apart from the neighbouring union of Lanchester:—

	Auckland in		Weardale in		Penrith in		Wigton in		Total.		Increase in 8 years.
	1851.	1858.	1851.	1858.	1851.	1858.	1851.	1858.	1851.	1858.	
Population - -	30,083	37,461	14,567	18,724	22,307	25,260	23,661	23,870	90,618	103,318	12,700
Public day schools	31	47	13	25	41	54	36	51	127	177	50
Private do. -	33	54	16	15	37	28	41	35	127	132	5
Day scholars - -	3,725	6,702	1,667	2,252	2,660	3,339	3,122	3,743	11,399	16,027	4,637
Average attendance of do.	3,227	4,755	1,403	1,519	2,524	2,610	2,751	2,843	9,905	11,727	1,822
Evening schools -	2	26	—	12	—	1	2	4	4	43	39
Evening scholars -	30	402	—	296	—	10	24	37	40	655	615
Sunday schools -	43	74	33	37	40	53	22	38	138	202	64
Sunday scholars -	3,122	6,367	2,108	3,012	2,210	2,756	1,597	2,467	9,277	14,632	5,355
Average attendance of do.	2,307	4,933	1,727	2,218	1,793	2,102	1,278	1,984	7,098	11,237	4,139

There are no factory schools in my district. The Messrs. H., who are the only considerable manufacturers, decline employing children under 13, rather than be subject to the school provisions of the Factory Act. Since the period of my visit, they have opened an evening school for the gratuitous instruction of the men and youths in their employment, and find it largely attended.

Evening
schools.

The Statistical Returns of evening schools give the following results:—

Unions.	Number of Schools.	Total Number of Scholars belonging to the School.			Average Number in attendance every Evening.		
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Durham	21	443	29	472	350	23	373
Auckland	20	346	56	402	230	37	267
Weardale	12	182	24	206	135	18	153
Penrith	1	6	4	10	6	4	10
Wigton	4	31	6	37	23	3	31
Total	64	1,008	119	1,127	749	85	834

They are chiefly private speculations, and seem to succeed but poorly. They are deemed unsuitable for the hours of colliery labour; while in the lead-mining and agricultural districts the distances would be too great, owing to the thinness of the population. They are confined therefore chiefly to the towns, where they suit tradesmen's hours. In one coal-mining parish, however, the curate gives gratuitous instruction nightly to 57 men and boys, and in another 56 attend the colliery evening school. In all cases the instruction appears to be quite elementary, not a continuation of early education but an attempt to remedy its neglect; there is, however, a large evening attendance at the Government School of Art, which meets at the Mechanics' Institute, Durham.

Sunday
schools.

The Sunday schools are devoted exclusively to religious instruction, and are thus distributed among the various denominations:—

Religious Denominations.	Number of Schools.	Total Number of Scholars belonging to the School.			Average Number of Scholars in Sunday Attendance.			Number of paid Superintendents and Teachers.			Number of voluntary Superintendents and Teachers.		
		M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.
1. Church of England -	110	3,442	3,298	6,740	2,637	2,560	5,197	43	26	69	239	259	498
2. Wesleyan Methodist -	67	2,893	2,519	5,412	2,179	1,836	4,015	1	2	3	613	291	904
3. Primitive Methodist -	50	2,877	2,504	5,381	2,289	1,964	4,253	—	—	—	668	218	886
4. New Connexion Methodist - - -	9	507	437	944	422	352	774	—	—	—	86	48	134
5. Independent - - -	6	391	419	810	301	309	610	—	—	—	55	40	95
6. United Free Church Methodist - - -	5	180	168	348	139	136	275	—	—	—	42	30	72
7. Other - - -	5	98	122	220	80	91	171	—	—	—	16	12	28
8. Baptist - - -	3	102	81	183	83	61	144	—	—	—	16	15	31
9. Roman Catholic - - -	3	88	102	191	72	79	151	—	—	—	3	—	3
10. None - - -	3	143	136	279	108	105	213	—	—	—	26	17	43
Total - - -	261	10,721	9,786	20,507	8,310	7,493	15,803	44	28	72	1,764	930	2,694

Educational statistics of the mining population.

APPENDIX D.

Through the zeal and courtesy of the coal owners I have been put in possession of interesting educational statistics concerning an exclusively colliery population numbering about 34,600 souls in the Durham and Auckland Unions. These returns show the following distribution of 4,906 children between 3 and 15 years of age:—

	Boys.	Girls.
At school - - -	42·0 per cent.	48·0 per cent.
At work in the pits - - -	34·3 "	—
At work at home - - -	3·0 "	14·0 "
Neither at work nor school -	21·0 "	32·0 "
Unaccounted for - - -	—	6·0 "

The girls unaccounted for are probably out at service.

From some more partial returns, including about 1,000 working boys, it appears that nearly all of them attend Sunday school, and 1½ per cent. go to week-evening school also.

The following is the educational state of the parents of these children:—

	Fathers.	Mothers.
Can read - - -	78·0 per cent.	72·0 per cent.
Can write also - - -	64·0 "	47·0 "
Can neither read nor write -	22·0 "	28·0 "

The accomplishment of writing in a large number of these cases probably amounts only to the ability to inscribe their own name; but even this is a great advance upon the condition of matters 20 years ago, when very few of the pitmen signed their engagements otherwise than by mark; and scarcely any even of the overmen could keep a journal of the pitmen's work. No other would now be employed.

As the Shildon Engine Works belonging to the Stockton and Darlington Railway Company lie within my district, I obtained statistics from the manager, who entered into the inquiry with much readiness. In the families connected with these works, there are 1,181 children between 3 and 15, who are thus partially described:—

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
At school - - -	236	255	491
Employed at the works -	106	—	106

A large number more boys appear to be otherwise employed, for there is a return of 362 *working* boys attending Sunday school. The men and youths, with the wives of the former, are thus described:—

	Men and Youths.	Women.
Can read - - -	94·9 per cent.	90·0 per cent.
Can write also - - -	90·0 „	82·0 „
Can neither read nor write -	6·0 „	10·0 „

The returns with which I have been favoured from the APPENDIX E. proprietors of the lead and iron mines give the following results:—

	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Total number between 3 and 15 years of age - - -	1,518	1,481	2,999
At day schools - - -	665	624	1,289
Occupied on the mines - - -	465	—	465
Attend both evening and Sunday school - - -	24	—	24
Attend Sunday school only - - -	421	—	421
Attend evening school only - - -	22	—	22

The following is the educational state of the parents of these children:—

	Fathers.	Mothers.
Can read - - -	95·7 per cent.	92·8 per cent.
Can write also - - -	90·4 „	77·0 „
Can neither read nor write -	4·3 „	7·2 „

By means of the relieving officers I have ascertained that there are 1,290 children between 3 and 15 receiving out-door relief in these five Unions, that is, 2·9 per cent. of all the children of school age. Of these 1,290 children there are,—

At day schools - - -	58·0 per cent.
At work for wages or food - - -	14·0 „
Idle and vagrant - - -	28·0 „

Above 62 per cent. of these children attend Sunday school.

CHARACTER OF THE SUPPLY; OR, PERSONAL INQUIRY INTO THE CONDITION OF EDUCATION.

Inspected schools.

I have said that 78 of the schools in my district are under Government inspection. The fact implies that a certain approved plan of operation is maintained, and almost certainly some satisfactory results may be reckoned upon, these varying considerably, of course, according to the efficiency of the teachers and the material they have to work upon. These schools are found chiefly in the towns, and in connexion with some of the more extensive coal and iron works. Their condition may be fully known from the Inspectors' Reports; and it may, therefore, suffice for me to notice them only so far as they afford points of peculiar interest illustrative of general principles. I should premise that I always, when possible, visited unexpectedly, and generally asked the teacher to go on with the lesson in hand, instead of myself examining the pupils.

At the ——— Coal and Iron Works the men are taxed to the amount of $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ a week; that is, $3d.$ is deducted out of each fortnight's wages for the support of the schools; and in consideration of this sum they may send as many children as they have. Here a master and mistress, both holding Privy Council certificates, and both, so far as I could judge, really clever teachers, are labouring, apparently to very little purpose, among above 300 children, 91 per cent. of them under 10 years of age, attending school one day, kept at home another, and perhaps gone to another locality the next, and their places supplied by raw levies. The peculiar aggravation of the case of this school is its being in connexion with a tommy-ticket establishment, which always attracts an extremely fluctuating and immoral population; and I adduce it as the most signal instance I met with of the labours of competent teachers being frustrated by the arrangements of the patrons.

In the towns the population is steadier than in the collier villages. The Bluecoat, St. Oswald's, the Diocesan Model, and the Wesleyan Schools in Durham, those on the Barrington foundation in Bishop Auckland, and the Blackboy Colliery School in its immediate neighbourhood, were among the very best I saw in the collier districts, affording pleasing examples of what efficient teachers can accomplish even among the children of very illiterate parents, if those arrangements which are under the control of the employers of labour and the managers of the schools tend to secure a tolerably regular attendance. Then the highly respectable acquirements of the children of the workhouse schools show how much may be done by teachers of average, or less than average ability, where they can secure the constant presence of their scholars, and exercise entire control over them. The Penrith Wesleyan School, which is the largest in my district except the Witton Park, affords the best example among the Government schools of a combination of those elements which seem most essential to success. An efficient and highly popular master, in

the tenth year of his appointment; a committee of management perfectly at one with him; scholars generally the children of well-doing and fairly intelligent parents; their engagements quarterly; and fees proportioned to their circumstances. I visited this school unexpectedly again and again, and always found both master and children fully occupied and apparently happy. The attainments of the pupils were highly satisfactory. I met with no such good reading as here; and had occasion to observe, as in other cases, how much a talent for music in the teacher contributes to the popularity and cheerfulness of a school. The fees amount to above a hundred pounds annually.

The reverse of all this is found in those schools where there is no method, little or no practical superintendence, and no proper apparatus for teaching. All these evils combine in a greater or less degree in most of the unvisited schools, but chiefly in those attached to the collieries of the county of Durham, those having permanent endowments in Cumberland and Westmoreland, and in the low private adventure schools everywhere.

The premises of the colliery schools are, for the most part, provided by the coalowners. A few of them are recent and commodious structures erected for the purpose. Some consist of one or two collier cottages cleared of partition walls, while some schools are held, whether by right or permission, in the small rude chapels which are found in almost every village.

The salaries of the teachers, which are from 15*l.* to 50*l.* a year, are secured by the coalowners, and the usual fee is 1*d.* a week, from each child. Four fifths of the scholars are under 10 years of age throughout all the collier schools, the best of them showing no exception; and the instruction is of the most rudimentary kind. One is forced to conclude that there must be either gross negligence, or ignorance of the proper methods of tuition, or both, where it is usual for children of five years old to be from 6 to 12 months over the alphabet, and for those who have been two years at school to be only at words of two or three letters. The truth is, when teachers are left almost entirely to themselves, without previous training, without proper books and other apparatus, without counsel in difficulty, and without protection from insult, they almost inevitably become first disheartened, secondly idle, and thirdly, in too many cases, addicted to drink. In numerous instances we found the master of a collier school either smoking, or sitting idly, or out among the neighbours.

Endowed schools, many of them dating from the middle of the eighteenth century, and some from the seventeenth or even sixteenth, form the leading educational feature in the Unions of Weardale, Penrith, Wigton, Eastward, and Westward. That these institutions were once valuable means of education is evinced by the fact that there lingers among the most illiterate of the people a traditional feeling of belonging to an educated race, and they treasure in their houses books which their ancestors understood, if they do not. But now the halt, the maimed, the drunken, even the idiotic, are promoted to the enjoyment of these

funds for education, the tender charity of the trustees deeming it prudent to appoint "lads" of such infirmity that there was no other way of "keeping them off the parish." These seem to have no idea of a schoolmaster's duties except to hear certain lessons, and to beat those who fail either in conduct or proficiency. In almost every case we found more than half the children idle, and all of them dirty, disorderly, and unhappy-looking. After listening a while to the lessons going on, I wondered whether any children could readily swallow or easily digest such meagre intellectual food, presented in so crude and unpalatable a form, and whether its being urged at the end of a cane, or shaken from a heavy pair of taws, would greatly facilitate its reception. Several of these institutions are designated "Grammar schools," having been originally designed as such; but they have, with scarcely an exception, sunk to the position of mixed elementary ones. The moral infirmities of some of the teachers seems to be much less deplored than the physical and intellectual deficiencies of others. Drunkenness is the prevailing vice. I was credibly informed that in some schools it is quite usual, especially on Monday mornings, for the boys on their arrival to inquire what state the master is in, or to assemble in the schoolroom, and if he fails presently to appear, they return home throwing up their caps and shouting for joy, "The master is *on*, and there are holidays for the week!" Parents do but laugh at such an occurrence. It is quite obvious that the sooner the country is rid of such teachers the better. But it seems this cannot be without parliamentary enactments to render them removable by vesting the endowments for the benefit of the school instead of the master. The Bishop of Carlisle did not scruple to say that "the endowed schools are the curse of his diocese;" the dean and several other clergymen agreeing.

Private adventure schools.

The low private-adventure schools are, for the most part, in a deplorable state; the premises generally much more confined, the books, if possible, more heterogeneous, and the methods less systematic, than in the generality of the uninspected public schools. Some of them are conducted by men of fair talents and attainments who, by moral obliquities, have lost their position in other spheres of employment; others are taught by women whose main defect appears to be their ignorance. The best of the former are those which receive chiefly elder boys for writing and arithmetic; and of the latter, the best are those devoted almost exclusively to needlework, some of them exhibiting that aspect of cheerful industry in the presence of which some good must always be doing. The worst of them are those in which 30 or 40 children are crowded into the kitchen of a collier's dwelling, and the mistress divides her attention between teaching them, nursing her own baby, and cooking for her husband and sons. In one such school the collier and two lodgers, just from the pit, were at dinner, and, it is to be feared, afterwards undressed and washed themselves in the same apartment.

My district includes no ragged schools marked by the characteristics of feeling and industry. The only ones bearing the name are at Durham and Penrith. The Durham Ragged School is an assemblage of extremely poor children under the care of a very young woman, who gives them some merely elementary instruction without fee, herself receiving a salary of 25*l*. At the Penrith Ragged, which is, I believe, entirely managed by a single lady, 30 of the children pay a penny a week, which the teacher receives, besides a salary of 8*l*. a year. Here the children have a dinner once a week. The same lady prosecutes another form of educational charity. She collects about a dozen very poor children, and sends them to the dwelling of one or other poor woman, whom she pays for teaching them reading, sewing, and knitting, at the rate of 2*d*. a week for each.

There is a numerous class of uninspected schools with teachers of fair intelligence and moral conduct, but utterly unable to cope with the difficulties of their position. They have no apparatus for systematizing their labours, and no protection in maintaining their plans if they have formed any. Parents send whatever book or fragment of a book there happens to be in the house, and the teacher must use it for the required purpose. Hence it often occurs that no two children at the same stage of advancement have books alike, and so there are almost as many classes as scholars. Sympathy is thus precluded, and those who are sitting idle are scarcely at all advantaged by hearing the lessons of others. The waste of the teacher's time, and the habits of listlessness inevitably contracted by the pupils, need scarcely be adverted to. A more serious consequence is, that the New Testament being the only uniform book that can generally be obtained, is used as a common lesson book long before it can be read with any degree of ease. It is not only thumbed, torn, thrown on the floor, and tossed from hand to hand in sport or anger, but its most solemn passages are spelled out with all the usual accompaniments of scolding, beating, quarrelling, and crying which attend ordinary lessons. Where any maps are found they are generally begrimed with dirt. Blackboards are very rarely found, and the whole apparatus belonging to the school is often a few hacked badly-placed desks, tattered lesson-cards, and broken slates.

Teachers suffer from want of protection as well as apparatus. One parent insists on one kind of discipline for his children, another prefers a different one, and the teacher has too often to endure no small amount of bullying and abuse, rendering him, if not a very energetic man, liable to be tossed to and fro, and changeable in his school discipline.

Here I cannot forbear quoting from a very spirited letter from the master of ——— school:—"I believe my predecessor shone more at well sinking than in school; and yet such men are and were far more thought of than duly qualified teachers. Their ideas were on a par with the parents' ideas; they were metal that any one could work upon; were pliant to every whim—syc-

phancy their virtue, hypocrisy their faith; could be snubbed and rebuked at pleasure, and gave way to every illiterate prejudice."

Between schools that are thus without method, apparatus, or supervision, and those which are conformed to the requirements of the Privy Council, there are many which are more or less cared for by patrons and committees, and which exhibit various degrees of efficiency between the extremes I have described. As a general remark, I would say that the degree of this efficiency depends much more on a good organization, assisted by proper books, slates, desks, and other apparatus, than on the personal attainments of the teacher. Some of the existing schools have been, and many more might be raised into a condition of efficiency by the temporary introduction of an organizing master, with good superintendence afterwards.

Sunday schools. It is difficult to estimate too highly the work that has been
 APPENDIX G. done by Sunday schools among this population. A very large proportion of the adult colliers who can read, including those occupying places of trust as overmen and deputies, had little or no week-day schooling, but, having obtained the key to knowledge at the Sunday school, picked up further instruction as they could. Even now, these are in many cases the first schools that children are sent to, and open the way for day-school instruction. They do not, however, keep up among elder children anything previously learned in day schools, except Scripture reading and the repetition of religious lessons. I have seen nowhere any tendency to make the Sunday school either a substitute for the day school, or supplement to it, except so far as religious instruction is concerned. Any attempt to introduce secular instruction has been and still would be generally disapproved.

School buildings. I have seen nothing of that over-building which the Rev. Nash Stephenson has remarked as the result of "the new-born enthusiasm on the subject of education."* Comparatively few of the uninspected schools are at all commodious. Lady Boyne's, however, are models in this respect. Many of those in the colliery villages are crowded and inconvenient, while the old endowed schools of Cumberland are for the most part wretched, many of them unceiled, with deep ruts in the causewayed floor, the small and few windows having the broken panes pasted up with paper or stuffed with rags.

Matter and methods of instruction. I met with very few day schools indeed in which it seemed that the words read or repeated from a book, even with apparent ease, conveyed any idea to the mind of the pupil. For instance, a smart little boy read the first verse of the ninth chapter of St. Matthew's Gospel, "And he entered into a ship, and passed over, and came into his own city." I asked, "What did he enter into?" "Don't know, thank you, Sir," replied the boy politely. "Read it again. Now what did he come into?" "Don't know, thank you, Sir." In another school, a girl of about 13 years of age was directed to "say her geography" to me, and after she had repeated

* Social Science Transactions for 1858, p. 265.

the boundaries of several countries, I asked, "What is a boundary?" "It's a year's wages." My question had suggested to her mind the terms on which the pitmen are in some collieries bound for a year to their employment. Doubtless she did not dream of its connexion with the lesson she had just repeated. These are fair specimens of the usual results of any effort to elicit the children's apprehension of what they were learning—either total silence or an answer perfectly irrelevant. The truth which has been forced upon me in a way it never was before is, that the language of books is an unknown tongue to the children of the illiterate, especially in remote situations. It is utterly unlike their vernacular dialect, both in its vocabulary and construction, and, perhaps, not less unintelligible than Latin generally was to the vulgar in the middle ages. The gulf between is the more impassable wherever, as in the collier villages, there is little or no intercourse with persons of the middle class. Only a very small proportion of the children seem to attain any adequate understanding of the language of books during their school life, and whether they do afterwards or not depends much upon the circumstances of their lot. A maidservant told me she could read and write, adding, complacently, that she had been at a *natural* school for six years, "at least," she added, apprehending she had made some mistake, "it was a kind of sort of natural school." That which schoolmasters proudly call intellectual training is nothing else than an attempt to familiarize the pupils with the use of literary language, and thus to supply them with a key to all the stores of knowledge contained in books. The other type of education would be realized if knowledge, secular and religious, were conveyed to the mind in such language as the children already understand. I cannot say that I have seen either of these systems carried out with any distinctness; that is, I have seen no systematic effort to put children in possession of the language of books apart from the immediate design of conveying the knowledge embodied in that language. The teaching is at best as though one put a Latin geography into a boy's hand and made him understand it, so that he was acquiring Latin and geography at the same time, but each, of course, less perfectly than if it had been the sole object of study for the time being. Still less have I observed any considerable effort to convey knowledge directly in terms well understood, and apart from the literary language of a text book. The choice lies for the most part between knowledge embodied in formularies which are in an unknown tongue, and are committed to memory without an idea attached to them on the one hand; and, on the other, similar formularies interpreted with a view to effecting for the knowledge an entrance into the understanding. In other words, I have seen little of what is called intellectual training apart from the immediate object of imparting information; and still less of information really communicated to the mind except through the process which is called intellectual training. But I believe the latter prevails to a great extent in the Nonconformist Sunday schools, and probably the

chief secret of their superior popularity and success lies in the fact that they thus attend to one thing at a time. In one of the best Sunday schools I visited, where, besides the perfection of good order, there was an amount of Biblical knowledge truly surprising, the teachers conducted their earnest catechising, and the pupils their eager and intelligent answering, in one of the most uncouth dialects it was ever my lot to hear. These teachers are plain earnest members of the congregation, very little, if at all above the children in social position, and using their own dialect for the inculcation of sacred truth. I know not whether it is from any deliberate recognition of this principle, but the fact is so, that whereas the Church Sunday schools are very generally supplied with volunteers from the families of the clergyman or the squire, it is a thing very unusual among the Dissenters for the wealthy and educated, where there are such, to engage in this work; they leave it to the humbler members. To a similar cause may probably be attributed, at least in part, the superior success which has always been deemed to attend Scotch education. The better classes in Scotland all understand the lingua of the people, and use it in their intercourse with them. A Scotch parish schoolmaster employs an English text book just as, fifty years ago, "Ruddiman's Latin Grammar" was committed and repeated in Latin; but if he attempts familiar explanation or extempore teaching of any kind, he speaks as broad Scotch as is necessary for being understood. It well accords with this to mention that, with a single exception, the most successful teachers I found in the north were Scotchmen by birth, or trained in Glasgow; and for this I could assign no reason so probable as the fact, that there they must have learned the dialect of the people, and acquired more or less the habit of using it when necessary. By this they can gain an access to the minds of children in the north of England which is impossible to a teacher of mere metropolitan education. I could myself have held no free or satisfactory intercourse with the labouring classes in my district, had I not been familiar with Lowland Scotch.

Books.

It is proper in this connexion to remark that, while all schools have some elementary books or cards progressive as to the art of reading mechanically, there seem to be none framed with the express view of introducing the pupil gradually and systematically to an acquaintance with literary language. The First and Second Reading Books, which were published about twenty years ago under the sanction of the Privy Council, are perhaps the most perfect specimens extant of introduction to the art of putting letters together to form words; admirably adapted they have proved to be for teaching the art of reading to children who are familiar with a superior style of language, but utterly unsuitable for the vulgar, and calculated to foster the disposition which every one must have observed in popular schools, to aim at mastering with the tongue such words as are quite beyond the reach of the understanding. The Third Irish Reading Book is, next to the New Testament, the one by far the most usually met with in Cumber-

land and Durham. But, however suitable it may be to children in Ireland, where the lower classes are much before ours in command of language, it is in style generally quite beyond the comprehension of the classes that use it in the north of England. Teachers complain especially of the length and complication of its sentences, requiring the thought to be sustained, and the mind carried forward in a way of suspension which these poor children cannot manage. The text books which have been published by some of the English Educational Boards have a similar fault. They have been compiled with a view to afford correct information or salutary instruction, but apparently with little reference to whether they can be apprehended, or little knowledge of the calibre of mind that has generally to apprehend them; and, therefore, where the teachers are not very skilful in interpretation, these books do not actually convey a single idea. They might as well have been in Latin as far as their power of imparting information is concerned. This may not be experienced, at least to the same extent, in metropolitan schools; my remarks refer to my own sphere of inquiry.

To supply this deficiency in school books, I fear there is very little oral instruction. Perhaps few, except trained teachers, give object lessons or any equivalent for them, and it is to be feared they are but partially understood. Not many teachers, so young as most of them are, know any better than to go over just what they learned at the training school, and in words which the children do not comprehend. A teacher from one of the London Institutions told me she was giving an object lesson on bread, and supposed herself understood, till a pupil-teacher ventured to inform her that the children knew nothing about bran—*chizzle* was their name for it. It is here that oral as well as book lessons are, and must generally be at fault. The vulgar names of familiar objects and processes are almost always different from the literary ones; the teacher uses only the latter, and if the children pick them up, it may or may not be without the true idea. Few schools are supplied with apparatus for bringing these objects and processes under the eye, so as to present the verbal signs in connexion with the things signified. Just now some philanthropic individuals are anxious to see the scholastic routine of geography, history, &c. superseded by the familiar teaching of common things. The value of this course as a means of bringing over the chasm between the language of the educated and that of the vulgar, and thus preparing children for the use of books has, however, scarcely been adverted to even by its most zealous advocates, and it is well worth taking into the account. I offer no opinion as to whether the Scotch practice of using the vulgar tongue for reaching the understanding is better than that of Oberlin, who strictly prohibited the use of the Swiss patois in his schools, and caused all the children to be taught proper French and compelled to use it; I only note the fact, that neither of these principles is distinctly recognized or vigorously carried out in Cumberland and Durham

so far as I have seen. On the one hand, the vulgar tongue is not freely and commonly used for interpretation and oral instruction; nor on the other is there any vigorous effort to suppress it, and to replace it by proper English as a conversational medium. The gulf between the language of the lesson book and that of ordinary intercourse is left as wide as ever. It might be assumed that six or eight years of good schooling and constant familiarity with books would result in the total abandonment of the low vernacular even for common purposes; but this I have not found to be the fact. In Teesdale, where education has been so long and so well maintained that the adult population generally understand any ordinary English book, they still use the local dialect as their every-day medium; it would be deemed the height of affectation to do otherwise. Consequently each generation of children finds the language of books for a time strange, though with the advantage of interpreters at hand. "Mother kent t'wy an' gaid t'meenen," said an educated lad, referring to his own early difficulties in this respect. This youth interpreted his vernacular to me in good English when he supposed me not to understand him.

I have dwelt the more on this point, because of its intimate connexion with the question of the length of time really required for schooling. If there were not this difficulty of language to overcome, any child of ordinary intelligence might, between seven and ten years of age, acquire a very fair amount of education for one of the labouring class. The arts of reading, writing, and common arithmetic may be attained in a very short time under good methods; and then there may be a difference of opinion as to whether geography, history, and other branches of knowledge ought to be insisted on at school, or may be left to be acquired by subsequent reading. But there remains the question, how long does it ordinarily require a child to gain that familiarity with literary language which will enable him to understand an ordinary book, sermon, or newspaper? Language is readily acquired in childhood by mere usage, but it is otherwise in maturer years; and if literary language is not learned in early youth, it will probably never be learned at all, at least never become familiar; in which case the mere mechanical art of reading will profit little, and will easily fall into disuse.

Character of
religious in-
struction in
day schools.

I have not a single public school, and very few private ones, in whose returns "religious instruction" is not mentioned as one part of the business. The mode and amount varies considerably in different schools. In all the public ones, I believe it includes at least the daily use of the Holy Scriptures, and the committal to memory of the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, and some popular hymns. In the few British schools of my district some general explanatory instruction is added; and in some, at least, a catechism is used in which all the answers are in the words of Scripture, and the doctrines thus taught are those generally received by all denominations of evangelical Protestants. In the National Schools, the Church catechism is taught to the elder children on

weekdays as well as on Sundays; and I have reason to believe that this, and other recitations from the Liturgy, occupy more time than is usually devoted to religious lessons in the other schools. From this observation I except the Church schools under trained masters, most of whom furnished me with a copy of their time-tables, showing a judicious and very similar distribution of school hours. The Wesleyans teach their own catechisms and hymns, except where parents object to them; which, however, happens but seldom. Indeed, the learning of catechisms and other formularies of particular churches is, I believe, remitted in almost all schools, if the parents desire it. Where it is insisted upon, it is chiefly in schools under what is called High Church management, and here especially it may be doubted whether the children attach a single idea to the words they repeat. As far as I could gather, there is little attempt in any of the schools to render children familiar with religious theories, as is the case in Scotland, where intelligent teachers are wont to bestow so much labour in explaining the abstrusities of the Assembly's Shorter Catechism. The efforts of the teachers I met with appeared directed chiefly to the facts of Scripture history, stimulated hereto by the usual tenor of the inspector's examination. All the odd questions of a religious nature reported to me as having been asked by inspectors were historical. A Roman Catholic lady writing about a school under her management which she wished me to see, and describing the religious instruction there given as devotional and practical, remarked, in passing, that it did not consist, as in the Protestant schools, of inculcating the exact number of kings that reigned in Israel, or the precise names of Jacob's sons. The animadversion was, I believe, strictly just. Whatever may be the repetition of forms, the real teaching is for the most part neither devotional, nor doctrinal, nor practical, but historical, embracing chiefly the facts, and names, and numbers recorded in the sacred text. An inspector explained to me, that his reason for asking minute questions of this sort was, that if he found the children acquainted with these minutæ, he inferred a general knowledge of Scripture truth. Whether he is right or not, this practice in inspection gives the direction to the daily teaching of the schools. It need scarcely be added, that the inculcation of such facts imparts no sectarian bias.

There are some educational phenomena that appear to be connected with local causes not easily ascertained. That schools of every kind, private as well as public, are in the Auckland Union very superior to those of the adjoining and similarly employed population of Durham: that the general intelligence and good morals of Weardale have not exercised any proportionate influence in raising the character of the schools, and that the independent "statesmen" of Cumberland and Westmoreland, glorying in their ancient endowed schools, should have stronger prejudices against what they call "high larin" than the most degraded colliers of Durham, are general facts, conspicuous and undeniable, but of which I could find no satisfactory account.

Local phenomena,—
clergy and
capitalists.

Some offer a solution of all by alleging, that where capitalists employ labour, however unskilled, they sooner or later discover the necessity of educating their workpeople, and of doing it in the best manner; that is, cultivating the general intelligence and moral feelings; whereas the views of the clergy are generally contracted and stereotyped, limiting education to the repetition of certain tasks and forms. They say that, wherever, as in the rural districts, there are no great aggregations of labourers, there things go on in the old-fashioned way, and for want of stimulus even the existing institutions decline. Also, that where the land is chiefly in the hands of the clergy, capitalists employing labour under ground are thwarted and hindered in their exertions for progress; and that this accounts for the backward state of the schools in the mining parts of Weardale and Durham Unions, while the greater freedom of Auckland in this respect combined with the enterprising philanthropy of its leading coalowners is the reason of the generally superior state of its schools. It is quite true that the employers of mining labour are now generally solicitous for the education of their people, and in this respect there has come about a great revolution during the last twenty years. There are those who remember when it was their general opinion that if these pitmen had any education they would not continue at such work, and that the only chance for retaining them in the employment was to keep them ignorant. Even now, there are some who contend that *as labourers* they are no way advantaged by education; and that ordinary intelligence and experience will carry a man as safely through his daily toil without book knowledge as with it. But it is universally conceded that the educated men are the most manageable as well as the most moral, the most steady at their work, and the least liable to be led away by democratic agitators. Moreover, that when it comes to a strike or the threatening of one, the educated men are always the first to come forward as mediators and bring about a reconciliation. Almost all the coalowners, therefore, do something towards the maintenance of schools, and are anxious that education should be a true cultivation of the intellectual and moral powers of the children. I cannot see, however, that in this respect the clergy are otherwise minded. Among all those with whom I conversed, I found generally enlarged and enlightened views, with great anxiety for progress and improvement—very few traces of the alleged disposition to keep the people ignorant of all save their Bibles, prayers, and catechisms. Yet it is undeniable that they and the employers of labour are not generally at one in the matter of education. The latter, with but one exception, and he a landed proprietor whose numerous labourers were exclusively agricultural, complained to me that the clergy were perpetual obstacles to progress. Several of them said, when they built schools years ago, they thought of nothing else than placing them under the control of the parish clergyman; but this they find to have been a mistake, and they are about to build new premises which they will commit to other management.

Without any personal alienation from the Church, to which most of these gentlemen belong, or any desire to exclude religious teaching from the schools, they are anxious to see education wholly in the hands of laymen. Having met this on every hand in my intercourse with the employers of mining labour, I feel bound to record it; yet, on the other side to say that, except in the better towns, where religious rivalry has something to do with it, and about the mines, where self-interest combines with philanthropy to promote education, there seems generally to be no one to care for the poor children except the resident clergyman, and there could be no schools if he did not collect the funds, and, to a great extent, supply them from his own pocket. At Thornley Church, where the incumbent is also the squire, there may be seen one of the loveliest examples of a clergyman among the children of the poor, like a father in the midst of his family, instructing them in an easy conversational manner, and being answered in a way by which one sees at once that he has got the key to their minds, and an almost unbounded influence over their hearts. Such another case I had the pleasure of witnessing at Shap in the Westward Union.

The instances are rare in which capitalists or their business agents can give personal attention to their schools, or, indeed, are competent to be useful in this way; but where it is the case they are eminently successful. The most signal example of this in my district is that of the Beaumont schools in Weardale and the adjoining district of the Allendales. Mr. Beaumont's is said to be the largest mining estate in the world, comprising the greater part of the rich lead veins in Durham and Northumberland. Besides contributing to existing schools where his labourers are more scattered, he has built seven new ones where the population is chiefly composed of them. These schools are conducted on a uniform plan, and as one of them stands within my boundaries, I made myself fully acquainted with its organization, and visited the whole group, being accorded every facility by Mr. Beaumont and Mr. Sopwith, his chief agent, to whom he has committed the entire management. The rules of these schools, with the selection of prayers from the Liturgy, which are used every morning, and the forms of report required from each schoolmaster, I beg to commend to the attention of the Commissioners, as affording valuable hints for the organization of a liberal, enlightened, and strictly superintended system of education, as well as giving an insight into the principles and plans of a set of schools which the children cordially love, and to which they daily repair with earnest delight. To the erection of the Newhouse School in Weardale, the working miners subscribed 400*l.* without any stipulation for participating in the management, the only example of the kind that I have heard of in my district, but evincing the readiness with which parents will hail the establishment of a school on a plan which they know to be good. Here, as at Penrith, may be remarked the charms of music for children, and the proficiency they may attain in it if early begun and well taught. To which

The Beaumont
schools.

APPENDIX H.

must be added drawing—a facility for sketching anything placed before them, which I have never before seen carried to such perfection in elementary schools, and which must not only be very useful, but a source of perpetual pleasure of the best kind. As it regards the more usual branches of education, I found these children at least equal to those of the Barrington (boys') School at Bishop Auckland, and the Wesleyan (mixed) at Penrith, to which I am accustomed to recur in my own mind as exhibiting the highest standard. In the Beaumont schools I witnessed what otherwise I should not have supposed possible—desks which had been in use for nine years without exhibiting a single cut or other mark of ill usage; school books well kept, though carried home every day, and the ordinary copybooks without a blot. These schools are each conducted by an experienced master and mistress, more or less aided by monitors.

The discipline is entirely maintained by a system of tickets, some of which are given daily for punctual attendance and good conduct, some weekly for proficiency in lessons, and some monthly for prompt payment of fees. The greatest number that any child can gain in a month is 110; 80 tickets a month for four consecutive months places him in the first class or order of merit, 50 in the second, and less than 50 in the third. Those of the first order receive their books, slates, &c. gratis, those of the second at half price, but those of the third must pay for them in full. The boy who has most tickets at the end of each month is appointed ticket clerk for the month following. Prizes of books, mathematical instruments, pictures, maps, &c. are annually awarded by Mr. Beaumont or Lady Margaret Beaumont in person to every one who has obtained 60 or more tickets in each of six or more lunar months; and each child who obtains 1,000 tickets in a year is entitled to a certificate called an office ticket, because issued at the district office of the mining works, and recorded there for the promotion of his interests when he is old enough to work. Breaches of rule are visited with forfeitures of tickets, and such is the excitement maintained by this system that corporal punishment, though not forbidden, is never required and never resorted to. An eminent individual on visiting one of these schools begged a holiday for the children, and was surprised to find that his well-intended proposal elicited a general expression of dissatisfaction instead of a shout of applause. They did not want a holiday, they would rather be at school.

APPENDIX H.

The general direction and management of these schools is vested in Mr. Beaumont as patron, and exercised on his behalf by Mr. Sopwith; but there are annually elected for each school six visitors, four of whom are miners or other workmen, and two are agents, to act in connexion with the district agent as a sort of committee, not to interfere with or dictate to the teachers, but to observe how the school is conducted, note their remarks in the visitors' book, and unitedly represent at head quarters anything requiring interference. This organization, for the full details of which I must refer to the printed rules, is found to work ex-

tremely well ; and the time occupied in administering the ticket system is more than redeemed in the punctuality and good order which it secures.

These plans were organized immediately after the last great strike among the workmen, and, as I understand, in consequence of the conviction which then forced itself, that their education was necessary as a means of safety for their employers. It was at first denounced as a godless scheme, because managed entirely by laymen. But it has outlived this reproach.

Putting all these facts together, it must be obvious that the direction and support of popular education is in a transition state, Educational management in a transition state. passing by more or less rapid steps, according to the locality, from the hands of those who have supported it as matter of mere benevolence, to those who have discovered it to be one deeply involving their own interests. My district has been peculiarly calculated to suggest and illustrate this view, which had not occurred to me before. I have seen in the rural districts, the local support and management almost wholly in the hands of the clergy, conducted as a labour of love, with the pecuniary aid of the proprietors of the soil. On the Beaumont lead mining estate, I have seen education on a pretty extensive scale directed and maintained exclusively by the employers of labour on a system of their own devising, and with the efficiency and success which are likely to attend what men prosecute as part of their worldly business. In the colliery districts I have observed the struggle between these powers and influences ; the anxiety of capitalists employing labour to get education administered with a view not to the church but the coal pit ; and the difficulties they have to struggle with in this respect, not merely from vested interests, but from themselves being many, and having no rallying point or bond of union, without which single individuals can hardly adopt any very vigorous measures for fear of losing their workpeople.

It were needless to speculate on the question whether this state of matters is to be hailed as a sign of progress, or feared as tending to infidel utilitarianism. The fact of the transition appears to be inevitable, whether desirable or not, and the part of wisdom is to give it the best possible direction.

THE DEMAND; OR POPULAR FEELINGS TOWARDS EDUCATION.

Non-attendance generally arises from want of will and not from want of power on the part of the parents to send children to school and to keep them there. Cause of non-attendance not want of schools. I have a complete list of all schools of whatever kind in my district, arranged according to the parishes to which they belong, and from this catalogue it appears that out of 132 parishes 23 are without schools of any kind ; nevertheless, on the whole, few families are without some kind of school within easy reach.

Still fewer, if any of those really in earnest for education are Cause not poverty. debarred by poverty, in the sense of inability to pay fees. In some

cases the Poor Law Guardians supply the money, in others the private benevolence of individuals, and in most schools there is provision for receiving a limited number either free or on lower than the ordinary terms in case of poverty. I was surprised to find so large a proportion of out-door paupers attending school (see page 333), and paying in most cases 2*d.* a week; especially as in three out of the five unions the relieving officers appeared to take no cognizance of whether they were receiving schooling or not.

Cause not
religious
scruples.

What is called the religious difficulty is unknown to this population, except in the case of Roman Catholics, many of whom withhold their children from Protestant schools, but this avowedly in obedience to their priests and not of their own choice. Parents will send their children to whichever they deem the best school, quite irrespective of religious peculiarities. The fact is universally admitted, and not least by those who deplore it as evincing only the ignorance and apathy of the community. It would be fairer to say it shows the disposition of the lower classes to be guided more by facts than theories; for, notwithstanding the pertinacious zeal of the promoters of schools about having them conformed to this or that religious standard, I believe it is a thing unheard of among Protestant communities for children to depart from the religious profession of their parents through influences received at a day school. No single instance of it has ever come to my knowledge during my long acquaintance with schools and scholars, whether high or low. The only grievance wearing a religious aspect seems to be the power which the managers of National schools possess to compel Sunday attendance at school and church as a condition of weekday tuition. This power, however, I was informed is not now generally exercised in this part of the country. It was found that many parents would rather forego for their children the advantage of weekday education than be precluded from conducting them on Sunday to the place where they themselves worshipped. That Sunday attendance is not very generally insisted on appears from the statistical fact, that while the Church day schools number 12,219 scholars, they command a Sunday attendance of only 6,740, or little more than 50 per cent, of their weekly scholars; whereas the Nonconformist and nondenominational Sunday schools have 13,767, or above 350 per cent. as compared with their day scholars.

It is right to add in connexion with this subject, that there is very little thoroughgoing dissent in my district. Almost all those of the lower classes who go to any place of worship belong to some section of the followers of John Wesley, and have more or less friendly feeling towards the church by law established, which many of them attend concurrently with their own chapels.

Claims of
labour.

The claims of labour keep a good many from school, especially in the colliery districts, where, in defiance of law, boys are sent into the pits at 8, 7, and even 6 years old, and from this tender age to 15 earn from 1*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a-day, and some even more. In the Auckland Union there are 15 per cent., and in Durham

15 per cent., of the collier boys under 10 years of age, according to the best calculation I can make by comparing the numbers admitted to be in the pits under 15 years of age with the numbers that, according to the usual estimates, can possibly be above 10 years in proportion to those between 3 and 15. I saw in a school record the name and age of a boy who had been removed the week before, at six years and three months old, to go into the coal-pit; and in a collier dwelling I was shown the fly-leaf of the family Bible, in which the dates of the children's births had been manifestly altered so as to add two years to the age of each, in order to enable a widow to get her boys employed. This unnatural pressure into labour proceeds from the collier families themselves, rather than from the employers, who say they could to a much greater extent substitute machinery for boy labour, but that it would give dissatisfaction to parents. It need scarcely be added, that too soon, under these circumstances, the boys learn the reckless habits and graver vices of the adult colliers.

As there is here no public demand for female labour, except in the fields at certain seasons, there is no excuse of this kind for the extent to which girls are taken from school at the same age as boys—in fact, as soon as they can carry a baby or make themselves otherwise useful in the house. But there is a great deal of domestic labour in a collier's dwelling—meals to cook against all the different hours at which men and boys return from work; a constant washing of garments, with the additional grievance in many cases of having to carry from a distance the water necessary for this purpose, and for the ablutions of the person, which coal miners, it would appear, never omit before going to bed. In Cumberland and Westmoreland the girls go out to service very early. A parish clergyman said he was “often asked to assist the tresseau of a girl 11 years of age leaving school for a situation.”

Prize schemes present but a feeble barrier to this anxiety for putting children to work. Some teachers say they retain a few children longer at school, and these only for a few months; while others affirm, that though they afford considerable stimulus to those who are and would at any rate be at school, they have no effect whatever in retaining for a longer period those who can get to work. The general opinion is, that these schemes supply a false stimulus, and are not on the whole beneficial. One great evil attending them is, that they naturally and almost inevitably induce the teachers to pay a disproportionate degree of attention to the candidates for prizes, to the neglect of the general interests of the school. Teachers themselves admit this.

Still these claims of labour, reasonable and unreasonable, are insufficient to account for the discrepancy between the number of children who ought to be at school and of those actually in attendance. I believe the main cause may be stated to be the aversion of the children and the indifference of the parents, both these being in a great measure due to the character of the schools. Nothing is so irksome to a child as to sit quiet without anything to do, which in most of the schools I have seen forms a large

Claims of domestic labour on girls.

Influence of prize schemes

Aversion and indifference.

APPENDIX C.

part of each scholar's daily duty. Only second to this in irksomeness is the repetition of tasks to which no single idea is attached; and then the only exercises remaining for boys are writing and arithmetic, which are learned by only about two-thirds of them. Schooling under these circumstances comes to be regarded by the children as mere punishment—often actually threatened as such—and by parents as a sort of necessary evil, in too many instances the only expedient for keeping unruly children out of mischief. This I believe, after most diligent inquiry, to be the true state of the case with a very large number of those who send their children to school only “now and then,” or never send them at all. But it would be gross injustice to say that there is indifference to education or prejudice against it. Among the idle and the vicious there is doubtless much listlessness and apathy; but among the well-doing of the lower classes, who, except round some of the “Tommy-ticket” establishments, form by far the greater proportion in the district I have gone over, there is a strong desire to have their children educated; and if this has not issued in sending them to school, it has been chiefly due to the inefficiency and repulsive character of the schools within reach. Parents are discouraged when, after keeping a child four or five years in attendance, they find him unable to do more than spell his way, with many a stumble, through a chapter of the New Testament. No wonder if they say, “Let him go to work as soon as possible; and when he comes to see the necessity of learning, he will pick it up somehow.” Even where parents are alive to the importance of schooling, there is great want of firmness in keeping the children at it with constancy and regularity; and where they are themselves averse to going, they easily obtain leave to omit here a week, and there two or three, in a way most injurious both to learning and moral discipline. Parents require motives more powerful than those which now exist; and the children's aversion needs to be overcome by making school employment much pleasanter than it generally is at present, which ought to be a matter of no great difficulty.

Cheapness.

Free education has very little place in my district, and is generally held in contempt. So is that which is very cheap. It is extremely difficult to get people to believe that that which costs little can possibly be as good as the more expensive article. “We pay but a penny, and of course we get but a pennyworth,” was the frequent observation of parents with reference to the colliery schools about the neighbourhood of Durham, while they expressed their grief that they could not afford the higher price of the private-adventure schools, or send their children to some of the more distant public ones of high reputation. The master of the Roman Catholic School in Durham informed me that when the terms were raised from 1*d.* to 4*d.* the numbers remained undiminished, and the improved attendance entitled the school to larger capitation grants.

Prejudice against the higher branches.

In the agricultural districts chiefly, but not exclusively, there is a strong feeling among parents that grammar, geography, his-

tory, &c. are not of any value to children who will have to work with their hands for their bread. "What is the use," they ask, "of teaching them about old kings, and battles fought long ago, and places far away that they are never likely to see? Much better let them learn what will prepare them to get their living." For girls especially, the education given at the national schools is disliked; and a dame-school, where little is taught but sewing and knitting, is generally preferred when within reach as to price and locality. Yet it by no means follows that a system of industrial training in spade-husbandry or other manual labour in connexion with ordinary schools would be acceptable. There would be a prejudice against it as a low thing, from its having hitherto been confined to ragged and workhouse schools. It would not be felt—for, indeed, it would probably not be the case—that the gardening or other work in which boys were occupied was any part of the preparation for the labour of their future life, but only a mode of passing the present time. The only schools in which I found industrial occupation for boys were in the Durham and Penrith workhouses, and here the whole amount of it appeared to be as much gardening as to form a healthful recreation for children pent up in the dull routine of workhouse life. The fact that the plan succeeds extremely well in these establishments forms no precedent for the children of independent labourers, who have generally as much to do for their parents out of school hours as they are able for. Where a teacher has no power of keeping the whole school well employed for six hours, he would certainly be better to have half of them at a time, while the other half were employed elsewhere. But the superintendence of this employment would require some one; and if there must be a second teacher, he might as well be one who could instruct the pupils in something less strictly manual. For the sake of banishing idleness, which is such a fruitful source of disgust and disorder, boys under 10 years of age might be kept busy at knitting, netting, straw-plaiting, or any other light fingerwork which the schoolmistress could teach them; but after this age whatever time could not be occupied between lessons, writing, arithmetic, drawing, and such other matters as are usually deemed proper to schooling, their parents could probably turn to account at home, and would prefer it to their working at school.

There can be no promotion in the collieries from the position of a mere pitman to that of a deputy, overman, or viewer, without some knowledge of writing and arithmetic as well as reading; and the general feeling is, that the more quickly these can be acquired the better. Time for school attendance is spared only with the view of its being a preparation for work. Parents have no idea that there is any advantage in children spending so many years at school if the same amount of learning can be acquired in a shorter time. In short, they regard schooling, not as a course of discipline, but only as a means of acquiring reading, writing, arithmetic, sewing, and knitting, as a preparation for the main business of life—earning a livelihood.

Yet no desire
for industrial
labour at
school.

Demand is for
an education
preparatory to
future life.

Demand for
religious
education.

Religion also is universally deemed an essential part of education—perhaps it ought not to be said for the same practical reason, because it does not seem to be adverted to as such. Nevertheless it is true, that in connexion with almost every colliery there are men whose intelligence and good conduct, the results of religious feeling, have raised them from the lowest grades to situations of trust. The instances are extremely rare in which neglecters or despisers of religion attain such promotion; I inquired again and again for a single instance of it, but no one seemed able to recollect one. Be it that in that class nothing but religion can deliver a man from the life of brutish degradation which seems to be the natural inheritance of the collier, and can render him the intelligent and faithful servant who alone is fit to be trusted with responsibilities involving the lives of his fellow-workmen; or be it merely that the employers have some superstitious belief about religious men being the most trustworthy—the fact is the same, admitted on all hands, and becoming a reason that the most sceptical can appreciate on behalf of religious education. Not that the religious instruction imparted at a weekday school often produces religious character, but the knowledge of sacred truth acquired, and the habits formed in early life, are found invaluable in imparting stability and consistency to the religious character acquired at a future period, under other impulses.

Education
must be
obligatory.

To sum up what may be said on the supply and demand in the district I have surveyed, it may be stated that it is not necessary to make education cheaper, but better. Still, if parents are left wholly to themselves it cannot be predicted that a supply of good schools would induce them to keep their children longer in attendance. More probably they would keep them steadily at school till they were old enough to work; and then, finding that a fair amount of reading, writing, and arithmetic had been acquired, they would judge that the sooner the main business of life was begun the better. It is the universal opinion, subscribed to by parents as well as teachers, employers of labour, and managers of schools, that education, in order to be general and efficient, must be obligatory in some shape or other; and the general feeling appears to be, that a certain amount being required before labour is begun at 10 or 12 years of age, there should be legal provision for continuing it afterwards by sparing for this purpose a reasonable portion of the child's time.* The coalowners are much in favour of this, but so long as there is nothing to render it equally binding upon all, none will venture to make it his own rule. Parents would be glad of legal enactments to strengthen their own hands, and uphold them practically in what they believe to be right, but have not firmness to maintain, as it regards keeping

* Mr. T. Greener, of the Etherly collieries, who is very extensively acquainted with the collier population of the north, says on this subject:—"Do not be afraid to urge it. It is practicable; and it is high time that any outcry to the contrary should be put down. Twenty years hence the pitmen will bless the men who may be the means of bringing such a desirable arrangement about."

their children at school. They say it would be well for themselves if their parents had been obliged to give them education.

In order to secure this, the law which forbids the employment of boys under 10 ought to be strictly enforced throughout the collieries; which it seems cannot be done unless there is some rule for ascertaining the age, like that which, in the Factory Act, provides that a surgeon shall certify to the appearance and strength of the child as indicating the age required. An inspector of mines told me he could do nothing in the present state of matters.

Provisions,
No colliery
work under
10 years.

He saw boys in the pits who he was sure were too young to be there, but they said they were "gan ten," their mothers had told them so. It might, moreover, be enacted, that no child should be admitted to labour even at that age, unless he could read fluently, write a fair copy, and work the first four rules of arithmetic in their simple forms. For continuing his education, the half-day system of the factories will not do, because of the labour that would be expended in lowering and raising two sets of boys every day to depths often of from 50 to 200 fathoms; besides that it would seldom be found possible to procure from an ordinary collier population two full sets of boys above 10, yet not too tall for the low-roofed passages through which the ponies are driven. Nor would the plan of the Printworks Act be desirable, as there is no such irregularity in the collier work as to demand the liberty for the very desultory attendance which we are told operates so unfavourably in the schools connected with printworks. Evening schooling, again, is almost necessarily precluded by the colliery hours of labour. The boy who must rise at four or five, according to distance, in order to be at that part of the mine where his work lies at six, and who never rests for a moment, even to eat, from that till six in the evening, must be much fitter to go to bed than to school by the time he has got home, supped, and washed himself. But two days in each week might be devoted to school, and such an arrangement, by which the body would have comparative rest while the mind was actively employed, would secure a relief which these poor lads greatly require. In many of the pits they have occasional days of rest, because where the sons of pitmen are so numerous that there is not constant work for all, the employers divide it among them. These days of rest, coming round irregularly, are seldom turned to good account; whereas, if legally arranged for school purposes, they would be beneficial both to body and mind, and the lesson plans of collier schools would be settled accordingly.

Schooling
afterwards
till 13.

It would probably not be tolerated in this country that anything beyond a very elementary education should be required as a condition of labour; but if upon a system of pass examination there could be engrafted one of tickets and certificates, similar to those of the Beaumont schools, by which to mark those boys and girls who have steadily attended school and public worship, behaved well, and made satisfactory progress for a certain number of years, a most salutary effect would no doubt be produced. Rulers would appear to the lower classes not merely as "a terror to evil-doers,"

Certificates of
attendance and
progress.

but "a praise to them that do well;" and the assistance that would be afforded to the public in selecting servants and apprentices of both sexes, would be well worth the small sum it would cost, while it would doubtless exercise a stimulating influence which elementary schools greatly need. Some of the inspectors complain that where certificates of school character have been issued, employers of labour have not appreciated them. The reason probably is, that the thing has been as yet but a private and partial arrangement, consequently not generally understood.

It would be otherwise if conducted under public authority, and especially if appointments in the Civil Service were made to depend on it. I have reason to believe that such arrangements would be generally acceptable, both to the employers and employed; and one third of time till 13 years of age, spared by children who have been schooled till 10, seems at least equivalent to half-time from children who have gone to work at eight.

In the lead and iron mines, where boys are seldom employed till 12 years of age, and then only about eight months of the year, the remaining four months might be given to school for a year or two longer, if fair proficiency did not appear; so in the case of boys engaged in agriculture. In neither of these cases can evening schools be very available, on account of the distances that must be walked; nor does it seem necessary. A good degree of proficiency—much greater than that required of collier boys—ought to be demanded of these before they begin work, and then the Sunday-school in summer, and weekday school in winter, ought to supply whatever else is needed. It is quite usual in Cumberland and Westmoreland for lads to go to school in winter till 14 or 15.

RESULTS OF EDUCATION.

In general.

The moral and intellectual condition of the people generally, so far as affected by education, may be gathered or inferred from what has already been stated. There is throughout this district very little demand for educated workmen or workwomen as such, and if there were more, I fear the supply would be found inadequate. A few months ago the Messrs. Henderson, of Durham, required in one of their departments a young woman who could write and work the first three rules of arithmetic; the value of the situation was, I think, from 12s. to 15s. a week. Nine young women, of good conduct and respectable appearance, each already earning about 6s. 6d., presented themselves, but not one had the requisite education.

Mechanics' institutes.

The mere number of mechanics' institutes and popular libraries affords but an uncertain criterion of the educational condition of the adult population, because they are seldom got up by the people out of a taste for reading, but rather by their superiors to create such a taste. For the same reason, the character of the books they supply is no guide, while we cannot learn what are actually read. The general report is, that they are little used among the colliers. I have statistics of 25 such

institutions, which comprise nearly the whole number in my Appendix I. district. From these it appears that there are,—

Members	-	-	-	2,399
Books of history	-	-	-	3,891
„ of biography	-	-	-	1,637
„ of belles lettres	-	-	-	2,247
Other books	-	-	-	7,697
Total number of books	-	-	-	15,472
Periodicals taken in	-	-	-	191

Thirteen of these 25 institutions do not profess to have any lectures; those of five are “occasional;” the rest are chiefly monthly. The Penrith Farmers’ Club, organized by the Rev. J. Simpson, of Shap, appears to be one of the most flourishing, and the only one having for its special aim the instruction of the members in matters relating to their calling. It includes 120 members; has 140 books, all on subjects connected with agriculture; and provides lectures twice a month.

The Weardale Miners’ Improvement Society, organized by Mr. Sopwith, about twelve years ago, seems happily to combine the principles of a temperance society and a night school with those of a mechanics’ institute and public library. Its first and governing principle is, that all the members pledge themselves not to frequent any alehouse, or partake of any ale, spirits, or other intoxicating liquors, till they attain the age of 30. These members are formed into classes not exceeding 20 in each, which meet on certain evenings in every week, to read, and practice writing, drawing, &c. The classes are self-governed, and decide for themselves what entrance money and what monthly contribution (usually 4*d.* or 6*d.*) each member shall pay towards purchasing materials and assisting the funds of the general library. There is a meeting of all the classes once a month, at the Miners’ Lodge, Newhouse, and they have occasional lectures and addresses from eminent individuals. Mr. Sopwith says:—“The progress of improvement in writing by a large number of the members has been very great, and several drawings of geometrical figures, and of strata and mineral veins, have been executed in a manner which reflects the highest credit on the authors of them.” I can confirm this from personal observation.

I saw no other traces of a taste for drawing, except at the Durham Mechanics’ Institute, where, as has been mentioned, a large class meets every evening. There did not seem to be much cultivation of music in the collier districts. The only popular band I heard of there, was at the works of the Messrs. Pease, who are among the very foremost of the coalowners in promoting the improvement of the people. Concerning this band, I was informed that during a period of agitation among the pitmen, Mr. Pease surrendered to them the management of the fines, and the purchase of the musical instruments was one of the results. There is also a band at the headquarters of each of the lead-mining districts in Weardale and the Allendales.

WORKING OF THE PRIVY COUNCIL SYSTEM OF AID AND INSPECTION.

Its principles generally approved.

With respect to the working of the present system of Government aid and inspection, everything I have seen goes to confirm the conviction that the combination of Government aid with voluntary agency is efficient and acceptable; also that this voluntary agency is always most effective when denominational as regards religious persuasion. Wherever single individuals or firms undertake to establish and maintain schools for the families of their dependants, it is deemed best to make the basis broad enough to suit equally those of all evangelical Protestants,* as in the Beaumont schools, and at the collieries of the Messrs. Pease. But wherever the funds have to be raised, and the counsels directed, by the combined exertions of several individuals, they work best when they belong to the same religious communion, and prosecute their work as in connexion with their own church. The only non-denominational school in my district conducted by a mixed committee has been very unsuccessful. On the other hand, the fact of a school being connected with any particular church is no hindrance to its drawing children of all denominations, if there is tolerable liberality in the management. This is remarkably exemplified in the Wesleyan schools of Durham, Penrith, and Bishop Auckland, and more or less in all the National schools that are liberally conducted. It may be confidently affirmed that these fundamental principles of Government aid and inspection are generally, indeed almost universally, approved. Even in the rural parts of Cumberland and Westmoreland, where the yeomen display the greatest aversion to state interference in social affairs, the prejudice against government superintendence of education is fast giving way. They confess that their endowed schools have fallen into decay and abuse for want of proper control, and would gladly see the whole matter administered by public authority within certain limits.

Private liberality stimulated.

The prospect of receiving Government aid appears greatly to stimulate private liberality, especially in the towns and collier districts; that is to say, persons now getting up schools, do, in order to qualify them for being taken under Government auspices, raise larger sums, both for the buildings and the salaries, than they would have done had there been no prospect of obtaining help in consequence of coming up to a certain standard. Several private teachers, especially some of the more deserving ones in the Auckland Union, expressed a strong desire to obtain Government recognition in some form or other. I am happy to add, that the present inquiry has been the means of stirring up those who are or ought to be promoters of education, and has led them to think as they did not before, whether they are doing their duty to the children around them in the kind and amount of education provided.

* I use the expression "evangelical Protestants" to mark the limit of this liberality. There is no disposition to concede anything to meet the views of Roman Catholics on one hand, or Arians on the other.

It does not appear to me that other systems of aid, inspection, and management practically interfere with those of the Privy Council. The inspectors of other boards visit so seldom, and have so little substantial good or evil in their power as the result of their approval or disapproval, that their influence seems to be very little felt, and I did not anywhere hear of its operating as a disturbing element. As to local managers, when they determine to place a school under Government inspection, they make up their minds that whatever will satisfy the inspector must be done; and as the schoolmaster is supposed to know best what the Government inspectors require, he is generally left to meet it as he best can. If he had not freedom in this respect, he would not remain in charge of the school, because his own position and prospects depend so much on the inspector being satisfied.

As yet the supply of schools has in no place within my district become so great as to produce more than a very moderate and healthful rivalry between those of different denominations. The only spot on which I heard any complaint of a superfluous school having been established, was at Bishop Auckland, where the commodious and handsome one just opened by the Wesleyans was in some quarters deemed a vexatious competition with the highly efficient Barrington schools to which reference has already been made. But on further inquiry it appeared that the Barrington schools were placed on their present footing only when the ground for the rival one was purchased, and its plans announced to the public. It was then, and not till then, as I was informed, that the Barrington trustees pensioned off the endowed schoolmaster, who could not otherwise be set aside, and engaged one with a Privy Council certificate, so that the result on the whole has been two schools of the highest character, drawing scholars from the surrounding villages, and each including as many as one master can well manage.*

While the fundamental principles are thus admitted to be sound, there are several matters in the working of the Privy Council system that are generally complained of.

The most obviously well-founded complaint is that the system is not calculated to reach the whole population; and that as administered, it inevitably excludes those that need it most. In the district I have been over, where the position of the labouring classes is much above the average of the whole country, only 33 per cent. of the public schools, including 50 per cent. of the children actually attending, are even nominally under Government inspection; while only 15 per cent. schools with 27 per cent. scholars receive that annual aid which alone ensures regular supervision. The poorer neighbourhoods cannot afford the salaries for certificated teachers; and if they could, they would not be able

* The printed return from the Bishop Auckland Wesleyan School having been made three weeks after its opening in January last, shows only 32 scholars, but the number has since risen to about 150, a large number of whom never were at any other school. The terms are much higher than those of the Barrington, yet 74 of the scholars are children whose parents support themselves by manual labour.

to obtain their services, as I shall presently show. There are no facts in my district, or perhaps in any other, to evince the result of last year's minute, by which it was proposed to overcome the pecuniary difficulty by allowing capitulation grants to schools conducted by young persons during the two years of their probation before receiving certificates, it being deemed likely that such would not require a higher salary than most schools even in poor neighbourhoods could afford. But I rather think that all who have had much to do with schools would prefer a teacher of mature years and experience, with the probability of retaining him steadily in the service, to a succession of striplings, however educated, concerning each of whom the only prospect is, that he will remain two years, during which his principal anxieties and best energies will be devoted to his own personal improvement. Scarcely anything is so injurious to a school as frequent changes of teachers. The Rev. G. E. Green, of Bishop Auckland, whose large experience and remarkable success in school management entitles his opinion to great weight, says that it takes a school from six to twelve months to recover the effects of a change of this sort. This opinion is fully corroborated by the declining state of several schools in which there has been a rapid succession of teachers within the last few years; while the converse appears in the flourishing condition of several in which the master (not being irremovable through endowment) has been many years in charge.

Capitation grants.

I was not prepared to find so general a disapproval of the capitulation grants as a waste of public money. Several of the wealthy coalowners who had placed their schools under the Privy Council chiefly with a view to the supervision and encouragement of the schoolmaster, remarked that these grants were but saving the pockets of themselves and others who were well able to support their own schools.* On the other hand, many deserving schools in poor neighbourhoods seem greatly to need help, and would be thankful for it. As a stimulus to attendance, the moral influence of capitulation grants is not in all cases happy. Some parents avow that they send their children to private schools because they do not choose to be pestered with the teachers and managers of the public ones hunting after them and imploring their regular attendance, in order that the capitulation grant may be secured. Motives to regular attendance ought to bear directly on the parents and on the children also; not through such a channel as to diminish their respect for the school. In many cases, the grants, whatever they may be, are promised to the teacher, and tend no doubt to stimulate his exertions; but it has been hinted that where this is the case, and even where it is not, the principle of the capitulation grants presents too strong a temptation to exaggerate the attendance, which can generally be done within certain limits without detection.

* Of the 27 schools in my district receiving capitulation money, I cannot say that one has need of it. Several of them have ample endowments, and all are supported by individuals or committees well able to meet the expenses.

The pupil-teacher part of the system is another in which the Pupil-teachers. expense is obviously incommensurate with the advantages gained. Masters and mistresses would generally prefer one full-grown assistant, who could be trusted to manage a class without supervision, to almost any number of pupil-teachers, the care of watching whom is a perpetual source of distraction to the principal, if himself engaged in tuition at the same time. The elements of reading form, perhaps, the only part of the work in which much individual teaching is required; and this might be managed during one hour of the day by employing the elder scholars as monitors, while the master superintends, as is done in some excellent schools of my district. Writing, arithmetic, music, drawing, &c., can be taught to a whole school by one man with an assistant, if the numbers are not unusually large; and if there were a system of reading books so contrived that the lessons of the junior classes should be only simplifications and abridgments of those read by the elder, but on the same subject, the chief master could conduct simultaneously for the whole school the explanation of the reading lesson over which the pupils had been conducted by the monitors. It must be added that the parents have a decided preference for having their children taught by the master personally; and the fact that this is almost always the case in private adventure schools is the most common reason for the preference given to them where the terms of tolerable ones are within reach. The arbitrary and constant division of the school into four or more classes is that which seems to necessitate the pupil-teacher system; but there are few schools in which it answers the end of supplying each class with a teacher, and masters complain that the unsupplied classes and those supplied with pupil-teachers are almost equally a cause of distraction and interruption to their own tuition.

The separate instruction of the pupil-teachers is a very serious burden to the master. I have endeavoured to ascertain whether their tuition or that of the school is most likely to suffer from this complication of duties, and from the contradictory answers I have received I am led to conclude that it depends much on the peculiar turn of mind of each teacher. Some take great interest and pleasure in the instruction of the pupil-teachers, especially if they meet with apt and diligent ones, and will scarcely teach at all in the school, but walk about and "superintend." Others will throw their whole energy into the school work, and go through the lessons of the pupil-teachers in a listless and perfunctory manner. Some there are of energy enough to give due attention to both. In the collier villages it is extremely difficult to find either boys or girls willing to enter on this apprenticeship, even where qualified for it.

The inspection of schools is pre-eminently a matter in which Inspection. the principle is universally approved, but the mode of carrying it out is scarcely less generally complained of. Not only the teachers, but the clergy and other managers of schools, complain bitterly of the mode in which the inspection is too often con-

ducted; that the inspector has in many cases neither moral nor mental qualifications for the office; and that however hasty or capricious his decisions, there is no appeal from them. No communications from teachers are received at the Privy Council Office, and even the patrons of schools, who may have witnessed the most flagrant injustice, cannot, without the utmost difficulty, obtain a hearing. Almost every one had some instance of these wrongs to relate to me, with anecdotes of the mode in which the children were confounded by trick questions. I must not be understood to refer chiefly to the inspectors at present in my district, for they appear to be among the most judicious and popular; but rather to those of former times and other localities. One teacher told me, that in the district where he served his apprenticeship, the indignant masters used to turn the inspector out of their schools, at whatever risk of losing their augmentation money. The principal of a training school informed me that there are some districts to which his teachers will not go on any terms, because of the character which they have heard of certain inspectors. Teachers say, "We don't want men who have 'won their spurs at Oxford and Cambridge' as it was expressed in the House of Commons last session, but men who can appreciate the labours and sympathise with the difficulties of him who undertakes to instruct the children of the poor and ignorant."

Education of
teachers;

Equally unanimous is the opinion as to the too elaborate education of teachers, and the unnecessary amount of mere scholastic learning that is required of them, in order to obtain certificates of merit. Managers of schools complain of it on various grounds; but I would rather lay before the Commissioners the substance of what I have elicited from the certificated teachers themselves, with most of whom I conversed during my itinerancy, and with all of whom I have corresponded since my return to London. The most striking fact is their restlessness and dissatisfaction. From two to three years seems to be the most usual length of stay in any one situation after the certificate has been obtained, however long and steady may have been the previous service. Out of 49 certificated teachers there are—

their dissatis-
faction.

In the 1st year of their appointment	-	-	15
2d	"	"	7
3d	"	"	8
4th	"	"	2
5th	"	"	4
6th	"	"	3
7th	"	"	4
8th	"	"	2
11th	"	"	1
12th	"	"	2
20th	"	"	1

The average being three years.

The number of previous situations held by these teachers amounts to 38, in each of which—

	9	spent less than 1 year.
10	"	2 years.
13	"	3 "
2	"	4 "
3	"	5 "
3	"	6 "
4	"	7 "
1	"	8 "
1	"	11 "
2	"	12 "
1	"	13 "

The average time spent in each of the previous situations having been 2 years and 10 months.

One fruitful source of dissatisfaction arises upon matters of finance. It is necessary for the managers of a school to guarantee a certificated master a certain sum yearly. Suppose it is 40*l.*, to be raised by school fees supplemented by subscriptions. The fees are paid to the master, and if at the end of the year it appears that he has received only 15*l.*, and the remaining 25*l.* is a larger sum than has been or can easily be raised, unpleasant feelings are apt to arise. The managers think, and seldom scruple to say, that the master might have rendered the school more productive; while the master thinks that the managers have not interested themselves sufficiently in the welfare of the school; or, perhaps, on the other hand, that they have interested themselves too much, taking upon them to frame regulations which have prevented its prosperity. Where the schoolmaster's education has given him that refinement and elevation of mind which is the usual result of true cultivation, it is extremely painful for him to receive almost as alms to himself the money which has been subscribed to maintain him in his situation. And where he knows, or thinks he knows, his business as a teacher, he feels more or less impatient of the control which is exercised over him, whether by inspector, clergymen, or lay committee, who know very little comparatively about the matter, but who, because they are the channel of the money, and responsible for it, claim a right to dictate. Moreover, this mode of raising a guaranteed salary by supplementing the fees with subscriptions, instead of guaranteeing a certain fixed salary besides fees, precludes that healthful stimulus which the schoolmaster requires. Possessing, as every man does, the instinctive desire of bettering his position, he has no mode of doing so except by removing to another school; because an increase of scholars and fees where he is results only in diminishing the necessity for subscriptions, but does nothing to improve his income. It is said with some truth, on the other hand, that if the master had much to gain or lose in proportion to the school pence, he would have strong temptations to humour the caprices of parents, and even the tempers of children, to the detriment of school discipline. This desire of pleasing parents would certainly

be an evil if there were no means of preventing its excess, but in moderation it seems to be greatly needed. A rude population would be much advantaged if the schoolmaster would condescend to make the acquaintance, and, within due limits, conciliate the goodwill of the heads of families in his neighbourhood.

Another source of dissatisfaction among teachers is, that their vocation hold out no prospect of promotion. Doubtless few of those who have been trained and certificated intend this as their ultimate career. The bishops have begun to admit them to holy orders; the dissenting bodies are talking of their admissibility to the work of the ministry amongst them. Most of them are young, and now, while their services are at a premium, are saving money against a favourable opportunity of entering on some other course. As their numbers multiply, and those now in the field become less able to make their own terms, they will find such opportunities; and the result will be, that after the large sums of public money which have been spent upon them, they will be lost to the cause of education just when they were best qualified to serve it. The truth is they now occupy a false position. Their superior education has rendered it necessary to attach high salaries to their situations; but the work to be done, and the social position it involves, are not in keeping with these conditions. That is to say, a man of such education, commanding an income of from one to two hundred a year, besides a free house, is out of place teaching a parcel of poor little children the very elements of knowledge, and comporting himself as the humble servant of those who collect from the charity of the public what he cannot realize from the weekly pence of his scholars. I do not deem it prudent to particularize the data on which these remarks are founded, but they are not mere speculations.

Having obtained permission, I beg to subjoin extracts from two letters which I have received from one of the teachers of my district, and which I have reason to believe embody the prevailing feelings of this class.

“I have changed a good deal in a very few years, and should again follow the same course if there appeared a clear advantage in doing so. An elementary schoolmaster has very little chance of advancement whatever his merits may be; and I should consider myself wanting in duty to myself and family did I not eagerly seize any opportunity of bettering my position and circumstances.”

Having requested this correspondent to say what kind of advancement he thought suitable to the position of elementary teachers, I received the following reply:—

“Dear Sir,

“I have long been of opinion that the office of inspector of elementary schools, which is at present filled by gentlemen who have to learn its duties after their appointment, should be thrown open to schoolmasters, whose position on the class list is a guarantee that they possess in comparatively high degree a knowledge of the subjects usually taught in such schools, and whom inspectors

reports show to possess energy and skill in school management. No doubt the peculiar circumstances attending the first appointment of inspectors rendered it impossible that schoolmasters should have been first chosen to the office; but, in the present state of things, it seems exceedingly hard that men thoroughly up to their work should not only have the mortification of seeing others of a quite distinct profession raised to the highest posts in their own, but also that of feeling that they are frequently placed at the mercy of men who are sent to sit in judgment upon them with no knowledge of elementary schools other than may be acquired in a university. I believe it would by schoolmasters generally be considered a satisfactory concession to fill up the assistant inspectorships from those that may be looked upon as the most deserving of their own class.

“Those with whom I have conversed on the subject of the ‘revision of certificates’ are generally masters who hope to have their position improved, and, of course, such men are not at present disposed to complain. There must, however, be a peculiar hardship when circumstances are adverse to the prosperity of the school, and when the inspector may be a young inexperienced man incapable of judging otherwise than by absolute results. Some time ago I met a schoolmaster who had just given up his certificate for revision. He had held it for six years, and was told by the inspector that the revision would be less favourable than if he had remained in one school the whole time. The man in question is still in his second school, and I think it a great hardship that because he happened to be able to improve his position, the Committee of Council should impose a penalty upon him for availing himself of the opportunity.”

On the subject of the “revision of certificates,” I have the following from another master:—

“I believe that the working of their Lordships’ Minute respecting the revision of certificates will cause a wide-spread feeling of discontent, as teachers in town schools, owing to their local position, will obtain an undue advantage over those who are engaged in colliery and such like schools. * * * To one, sir, of your experience I need not point out the advantages which town schools possess. I believe in the comparisons made between town and country schools these advantages are weighed but lightly by some of Her Majesty’s inspectors. I must ask you to pardon me for this expression of my opinion on a most important Minute, or rather, on its working; but I can assure you, sir, that I do not stand alone.”

From such communications as the above, it must be quite obvious that certificated teachers of merit will not be induced to remain in the charge of rural and colliery schools. It may be added, that men who can use their pens like these, will not be long unheard; and the recent establishment in Durham of a monthly periodical, chiefly conducted by such, and devoted to their interests, evinces that they are resolved not to be so.

On the subject of the promotion of teachers, the Rev. G. E. Green, to whom I have already adverted, says:—
 “This is a matter I should very gladly see taken up. I often feel that good teachers want some less laborious position to look forward to after a term of years. I should also most willingly bear my testimony, if such be needed, to the want of some such provision, both as an encouragement to all for exertion, and a reward to the really deserving.”

Registration.

Registration is not likely to be much sought by teachers who have not passed through training schools, if my district is a fair specimen in this respect. They seem to regard the examination with dread, from having little means of ascertaining how much knowledge is really necessary for passing; just as naturally as a student hesitates to present himself to the examiners of a university, without having passed under the hands of a grinder.

Effects of certification on other teachers.

There is no doubt that the line of demarcation which has been drawn between a set of teachers recognized by Government as qualified to conduct schools, and the remainder who continue unrecognized, places the latter in a much worse position than they formerly occupied, and is tending to deter new ones from entering the field otherwise than through the training schools; consequently, renders it increasingly difficult for private individuals to obtain teachers for the schools they support.

Want of mistresses.

It seems peculiarly desirable that intelligent females, not mere girls, but women from 35 to 45 years of age, should be induced to come forward, both as chief mistresses and assistants in the public schools. The young women who now come out through the training schools marry fast, and leave the service. There ought to be no mixed school without a female teacher, and this not merely because sewing ought to be taught, but because girls require to be instructed in the proprieties of female manners, and protected in the maintenance of a modest reserve towards the ruder sex. I have no doubt, and I am not alone in the opinion, that the imprudence of young females in Weardale, Cumberland, &c., to which I have alluded, may be attributed in a great degree to their mingling with boys at school till 13, 14, or 15 years of age, without the superintendence of a female. It is impossible to describe the coarseness of manners that prevails in these schools. The builder of a new schoolhouse smiles at any fastidious suggestions about necessary out-houses, and says, “They will never be used; no one understands the sense of them.” A very young female teacher is not so fit to reform these manners as one of maturer years.

It has been thought that if the pecuniary advantages held out by the Privy Council were more generally understood, they would draw into the service a higher class of females than those who now offer themselves. I believe this will never to any great extent be realized, at least among young females who have life before them, however it might suit those who have met with reverses, and whom an experience of the real evils of life has taught not to be

over particular. The rough coarse work of these schools, the publicity, and the low associations, must render the office of a teacher extremely repulsive to those who have been brought up as ladies; and as for young females of good plain education, to whom these matters would not appear insuperable objections, there are in the walks of business plenty of openings for them of a much more inviting character.

There can be no doubt it would be a great improvement if the pupil-teacher system were superseded, in whole or in part, by an arrangement to oblige all young teachers to go out first as assistants. It would scarcely do, however, to demand three probations of the same individual. It would probably be deemed a hardship too grievous to be borne that, after spending five years as a pupil-teacher, and two at a training school, there should be a further period of subordination required.

Probation
assistants.

Several inconveniences arise from the centralization of all administration in London. If it were somewhat localized, the claims of schools applying for assistance could be more justly appreciated; deserving applications could be more readily acceded to; and some that now receive assistance would no doubt be refused, to the saving of the public money. In the absence of all local knowledge, the Lords of the Privy Council are obliged to administer the funds at their disposal inflexibly according to certain regulations, which, however carefully framed, do most frequently result in assistance being granted to those who could well do without it, and withhold from the truly deserving and necessitous. In all cases the negotiations are said to involve the managers in much labour and delay—often in much loss and vexation also. Among other things, I heard heavy complaints that the Privy Council refuse to recognize a ladies' committee organized for the establishment of a female school. The ladies must appoint a male committee as the ostensible managers, with a secretary as the medium of all their communications, even with the inspector. Considering the great want of female education, and the peculiar fitness of ladies to manage it, this seems a pity.

Inconveniences
from the centralization of
administration.

The leading coal owners say, they would gladly do more for the education of their labourers if they knew how. They desire to have some authority on the spot—some one to direct their counsels in the establishment of schools, and to look after them when established. The inspectors, as at present occupied, are quite unavailable for this purpose. They are here, and there, and everywhere, and nowhere,—have already too much to do,—and visit each neighbourhood but once a year; which, if sufficient to keep up to the mark those schools which have zealous clergymen or intelligent lay committees to watch over them, is quite inadequate for those that have no other care or superintendence.

I was prepared to suggest to the Commission a mode of meeting these requirements by a local organization for carrying out the Government plans of aid and inspection, such as I have reason

Suggestions
waived.

to know would be cordially welcomed and co-operated with by the employers of labour in my district, and generally by the friends of education, whether lay or clerical.

Likewise,—considering the difficulty that there may be in obtaining from Parliament the two or three millions which it would require to extend education to the whole community on the present scale of public expense, and the length of time that must elapse before it can be so extended, even if there be no pecuniary difficulty, I was prepared to suggest means which might be employed at least as an interim and experimental measure for obtaining a supply of efficient teachers in a more speedy and economical manner than the present, and inducing them to remain at their posts without extravagant salaries. In these views, also, I have found the concurrence of those most deeply interested as teachers and managers of schools.

As it has, however, been intimated to me that the Commissioners desire no suggestions from the assistants, but merely details of facts, I forbear offering any other than those which have already found place in these pages, and had done so before I understood that they would be deemed undesirable.

THE LONDON LEAD COMPANY'S SYSTEM.

Since the above pages were written, I have had an opportunity of becoming more particularly acquainted with the system of popular education maintained in Teesdale, Alston Moor, &c., by the London Lead Mining Company, under the agency of R. W. Bainbridge, Esq., who has taken great pains to put me in possession of their plans and regulations.

The Com-
pany's miners.

The Company's mining estate consists of large patches here and there, extending over a district of country about 30 miles long and 10 broad, which is annually inspected by a deputation from the court of directors in London. The miners here, as in Wear-dale, work at their own risk. Their "bargains" are let to them quarterly, but the pecuniary settlements are annual, and here, as elsewhere, a monthly allowance, called subsistence money, is advanced for the supply of their wants during the year. The balances due at the end of the year are of various amounts. The more fortunate miners invest them in land or house property, while small sums are committed to the savings bank. A neat row of cottages got up by miners for themselves stands at the entrance of Middleton. The Company have likewise built a number which they let at a low rent to their own people, and never allow to want repairs. These generally consist of four apartments, with proper outhouses, and a neat garden to each dwelling, the fountain being the only thing used in common. There are premiums given at the annual inspection for the best kept houses and gardens.

The Com-
pany's plan of
schooling.

In the Company's educational system the respective duties and responsibilities of employers and parents are fully recognized, and

the religious views of the parents meet with due regard. The Bible is made the groundwork of the teaching, and the several catechisms and other books in use have been selected with the intention of avoiding sectarian peculiarities, while giving to the children a knowledge of the fundamental doctrines and principles of our common Christianity. The general organisation and management of the schools is much like what has been described in connexion with those of Mr. Beaumont, most of whose plans, it appears, were formed after those of the Lead Company. But the distinguishing feature which has not been adopted on the Beaumont estate is, that here schooling is strictly compulsory. The Lead Company, holding in their dependence a population of above 10,000, require that every boy be sent to school from the age of 6 to 12, and every girl from 6 to 14, if she remain so long under the paternal roof; the reason of the difference being, that boys of 12 are available for the lead washing, and may be supposed to have gained as much literary instruction at 12 as the girls at 14, because much of the girls' schooltime is occupied with needlework. Each school is conducted by a master and mistress, who employ the elder pupils as monitors, some of whom receive small payments. The girls are found extremely useful in this respect, being more apt, cheerful, and kindly teachers than boys; and they derive from this occupation a valuable preparation for becoming mothers. The parents pay 1s. a quarter for each child, and those not in the Company's service, 2s. 6d. Children not sent to school till after six years of age, or attending irregularly, or from any other cause not making due proficiency, are not released at 12 or 14, but are obliged to attend till they have given satisfaction; and no boy is admissible to work for the Company unless he produces a certificate of having complied with all the regulations.

In case of any being detained from school, or permitted to neglect it, the father is taken to task when he presents himself for the next quarter's engagement, which would be refused if he declined sending his children. This, however, never happens; but fines of 5s. have been sometimes imposed for the children's irregularity of attendance. If sickness is pleaded, one of the surgeons maintained at the expense of the Company must be sent for to examine the case, and certify the fact of inability to attend.

The Company likewise require attendance at Sunday school and public worship; and this to be continued on the part of boys working for them, even if deemed necessary, till eighteen years of age, when they are admissible to labour underground. No particular place of worship, however, is enjoined; nor are children here, as elsewhere, urged to church in droves. Parents take or send them to whatever place they themselves prefer; and they mingle among the congregation, to the saving of all the disturbance which usually arises from large schools in places of

Compulsory
attendance at
day school;

also at Sunday
school and
public worship.
APPENDIX K.
and L.

worship. At the door each child or young person receives a ticket, which he presents at school next Sunday as the voucher for his attendance. Each ticket bears a text of Scripture; but, in order to prevent any imputation of influence, the church or chapel at which it is issued is not indicated. I looked into four places of worship at the time of dismissal, and in the vestibule of each saw a respectable-looking man standing, like a Scotch elder, with his back to the partition wall, distributing these tokens of attendance. Any working lad who absents himself from Sunday school or public worship, or is guilty of any disorderly practice on the day of rest, subjects himself to dismissal from the Company's works. Such cases, however, very rarely occur. On finally leaving the Sunday school, each youth is presented with a quarto Bible, and each girl with an Oxford Reference 12mo, on the production of a certificate from the Company's school inspector that he or she has passed a satisfactory Bible examination; and no lad having attained the age of 18, is admitted to regular employment underground unless he has passed this examination, or can produce a certificate from the Sunday-school superintendent giving a sufficient reason for not having passed it, and stating that his conduct is correct, that he is industrious, and is making suitable progress.

The Company's Sunday schools are supplied with voluntary teachers of different denominations, most of them plain religious men connected with the service of the Company. I met with no such exhibition of Bible knowledge as here; such readiness to prove each point by a reference to Scripture testimony, and such complete familiarity with sacred geography. The hours of the Company's Sunday schools are so arranged, that the pupils can likewise attend those connected with their own congregations, which most of them do, and the teachers likewise.

In case of children residing at too great a distance from any of the Company's day schools, they may be sent to another, provided the manager furnishes quarterly to the agent a journal of their attendance, behaviour, and progress, with a certificate of their attendance at a place of worship. There is a similar provision in case parents declare in writing that they object on religious grounds to their children being educated in the Company's schools, but no such declaration has ever been made. The Company pay either an annual subscription or 3s. a head per quarter, and in some cases both, to schools attended by their children in outlying districts. Such schools are visited twice a year by the Company's inspector, and children from them must pass an examination before leaving school for the washing floor.

By means of the various registries and returns of the agents, the Company are enabled to ascertain the whole of every child's career and conduct, and to this they can and do refer when filling up the various situations of trust which are connected with the works, as well as in granting the humble employments of mere labourers.

Provision for
outlying
populations.
APPENDIX K.
—Exceptions.

Registrations
of conduct and
progress.
APPENDIX K.,
II. and III.

The returns with which I have been favoured by the chief agent give the following results:—

—	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Children between 3 and 15 years of age - - -	1,059	1,043	2,102
Boys between 6 and 12, and girls between 6 and 14 } (school age)	513	557	1,070
Do. do. do. (at day school)	483	423	906
Boys occupied on the mines - - -	473	—	473
Working boys attending both evening and Sunday } schools	70	—	70
Do. do. Sunday school only - - -	364	—	364
Do. do. evening school only - - -	3	—	3
* Per-centage of those of school age at school - - -	94·15	76·0	84·67

* It may be interesting to compare this per-centage with that in Appendix C., where it is shown that the proportion of those between 6 and 13 years of age actually at school is 59·8, on an average of all the schools, both public and private, in the five unions.

The following is the educational state of the adult population of 2,535, including the parents of these children:—

—	Men.	Women.
Can read - - -	96·0 per cent.	91·63 per cent.
Can write also - - -	88·0 „	74·18 „
Can neither read nor write - - -	4·0 „	8·37 „

I found 180 scholars present in the Company's school at Mid-Middleton dleton, the ages ranging from 6 to 15, boys and girls mingled ^{school.} together in seven classes. Out of 27 children into whose hands White's English History was put after being opened at random, 21 read fluently, correctly, and with expression, though with strong local accent. The writing from dictation was perfectly accurate in every instance, so far as spelling was concerned, and remarkably neat as to penmanship. The arithmetical exercises were accurately performed with astonishing rapidity, and when I questioned the class on the reasons for the various modes in which they obtained the answer, it was still more gratifying to find that the operation was not merely mechanical, but perfectly understood. There were no thoughtless or irrelevant answers here, either on the history in hand, or any other incidental matter that arose. Mr. Hyslop, the master, said he had fair play with these children, in having them uninterruptedly with him for such a length of time; and also in the fact that the mothers are now for the most part educated, religious, and sensible women, orderly in their household arrangements, and ready as well as able to give assistance in the preparation of lessons at home. He also mentioned, that during the 25 years he has taught here, he has

never had "a back word" from one of the children. I was no way surprised at this when I visited their homes, and observed the easy and yet on their part deferential intercourse between them and their parents.

I prosecuted a pretty extensive house-to-house visitation, found everything clean, whole, and in its place; no trumpery little ornaments as in the collier cottages; where there is a picture it is that of some favourite minister, such as Wesley, or a copy of the "Cotter's Saturday Night." There are in almost every cottage some select Sunday books besides the Bible and Hymn Book, an occasional volume of poetry, as Cowper, Milton, Burns, or some favourite local author, and not unfrequently some of the expensive illustrated books published by Fullarton, Black, or Blackie. I reckoned nineteen copies of the Imperial Dictionary. Here were no cheap periodicals or "people's editions;" they are not reckoned at all "canny." The miners like everything good of its kind. Many of them have cows, and not a few have a pony also to draw coals from the "West country." The remarkable personal beauty of the children, as compared with those of the adjoining colliery districts, can, I presume, be attributed to nothing but the transmitted and reflected intelligence and refinement which has resulted to the parents through mental, moral, and religious cultivation. I saw nothing that had the appearance of a neglected brat, no dirty or undarned stockings, no unblackened clogs, or unwashed faces.

Nenthead
school.

At Nenthead and elsewhere I found matters much the same as at Middleton. At the Nenthead school I observed more direct effort to make the children familiar with the use of literary language by teaching them the construction of words and sentences than anything else. The practice of making them question each other on the subject of their lessons is here carried to great perfection, and elicits much interest and intelligence. It is a distinguishing feature of the Scotch Sessional system of teaching, and is, I believe, little known in English schools. Comparing the Lead Company's schools on the whole with those of Mr. Beaumont, I should say, that they were by no means equal in singing, drawing, and other matters of taste, but decidedly superior in those branches that may be reckoned more intellectual. Again, on a comparison of both these groups of schools with the best of those under Government inspection, one is struck with the fact that, while the latter exhibit great uniformity, indicating a routine which is in a certain sense mechanical, these schools—I mean those of Mr. Beaumont and the Lead Company—display an idiosyncrasy which indicates the master's character stamped on every part of the work. Perhaps in the Beaumont schools there appears more of the indefatigable Mr. Sopwith, with its refined tastes and orderly habits, but not to the exclusion of the peculiarities of the schoolmaster. The only approach to this character of idiosyncrasy in the Government schools was at the Penrith Wesleyan, owing, no doubt, to the length of time Mr. Hurworth has been over it, and the degree

of freedom he enjoys. These facts suggest a question which is worthy of consideration,—whether it is better to insist on a certain organization and routine which is sure of producing some certain though limited results, in a great degree independent of individual talent; or whether it is desirable to allow the masters much greater freedom to follow the bent of their own genius in the matter and methods of tuition, and to organize in the way they feel best able to manage with the assistance they can command.

In and about Middleton I conversed with 37 men and women of the mining class, besides 13 joiners and masons, all of whom had been brought up under the Company's rules. They were unanimous in approving of the strictness of the regulations about schooling, admitted they thought the discipline hard themselves when they were under it, and confessed they would not have the heart to keep their children so very closely at school if it were left to themselves; but the stringency of the Company saves them a world of trouble, and on the whole they are glad to see the young ones "gart deet" (obliged to do it). An aged woman who had been brought up in Weardale eulogised the Company's 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. This testimony, in which other aged persons concurred, appeared the more valuable, as it is natural for old people to be jealous of innovations, and to give unreasonable preference to the order of things which obtained in their youthful days. A man whom I found building a house for himself, and afterwards recognized among the Sunday school teachers, expressed it as his opinion, that "in thez Dal t'oonedicated wull seen be "coosathered looniteeks."

General feelings towards the system.

I came upon a group of seven lads, from 13 to 17½ years of age, playing quoits. They dropped their game, doffed their caps as I addressed them, and seemed pleased to enter into conversation. They were all under employment at the lead washing,—do not like it so well as school, but each has access to the reading-room. All attend Sunday school; would lose their employment if they did not; are well aware that there is no chance of getting promotion without being good scholars. Four of them had been all through the arithmetic; three only as far as compound interest. All professed to be able to write a good running hand. I learned from these boys that their fireside amusements consist of reading, singing, and telling stories,—all kinds of stories about ghosts, warriors, and all the great worthies, which they explained to mean saints. Some may be disappointed to find objects of modern science and recent information make so poor a figure in this enumeration, while others who have studied the literary history of nations will recognize in these characteristics of popular taste an intellectual condition far above the barbarism of a community absorbed in the cares and pleasures of mere animal life, though below the level of those who have fully entered the arena of scientific knowledge. It may be

added, that the lead districts abound in traditional and mythological literature, which is of course circulated exclusively in the vulgar tongue, and tends much to its perpetuity. The numerous hamlet libraries evince the existence of a desire for self-cultivation.

As it is impossible that every one should be pleased, I found, on visiting the washing floors, mine shops, and reading rooms, that many of the people deem it unfair that boys should not have schooling till 14 years of age as well as girls. Out of the 14 to whom I spoke at Manorgill, 17 at Wyregill, and 23 at Egglezhope, not one considered the time from 6 to 12 sufficient. They say the "nipping time" with a working man is just when his eldest children come to be about 12 years of age, and there is great temptation to hurry them to work instead of doing justice to their education. It is just, therefore, at that time that he needs some little external pressure to do his duty by his child, instead of sacrificing future interests for present ease. There is immense eagerness about promotion in the works, with the prevailing conviction that scholarship with good conduct is the highway to the coveted preferment.

The sole policeman of Middleton has a beat of about 16 miles, and he considers his situation nearly a sinecure. He says petty theft is almost unknown, unless committed by passing strangers; and there have been only two serious prosecutions, both connected with poaching, during the 10 years he has held his appointment in this place.

I had opportunities of conversing with several intelligent persons, of more or less consideration, beyond the sphere of the Company's influence; especially Mr. Scarth, the Duke of Cleveland's agent, who has himself effected some valuable reforms in the resuscitation of decayed schools and the erection of new ones in the more remote and elevated parts of Teesdale. I found he had taken great pains to investigate the working of the Company's system, and was most cordial in his approval of it. I spoke likewise to some of his Grace's sub-agents, and numerous farmers and tradespeople unconnected with the Company, and they all agreed that an amazing change for the better in the mental, moral, and religious condition of the people had been the result of this somewhat bold and anomalous method of rule. I was assured there was not on this point a single dissenting voice, except that of two of the clergymen, whose reasons therefore I was anxious to hear, and visited them accordingly. The efficiency of the secular part of the education was a point conceded, after consultation of the parish register, to ascertain how many of the Company's people sign with a mark as compared with others. But there remained the objection that religious teaching must necessarily include the Church catechism, and cannot even, as regards the Scriptures, be duly exercised without a "medium" authorized by the Church; and this, being a matter of opinion, and not of fact, I was obliged to leave where I found it. The other five clergymen whom I met, and the dissenting ministers, all warmly commended the Company's plans.

N Views of the
 oc clergy and
 others.

There is a very creditable brass band composed of 24 amateur Music. musicians among the lead miners of Teesdale. They mustered on Saturday evening in honour of my visit to Middleton, and serenaded me at the hotel.

As some of the boys as well as men work at too great a dis- Mine-shops. tance from their homes to allow of their returning to sleep, there is at each of the principal lead mines, washing floors, and smelt-mills, a building called a mine-shop, which is no other than a lodging house, the ground floor being appropriated as cooking, dressing, and eating apartments; the upper as dormitories. As every one has to cook for and wait on himself, there would be much disorder if there were not stringent regulations about cleanliness, ventilation, and a strict observance of the meum and tuum with respect to places and property. There is a library and reading-room at each mine-shop, and it is one of the rules that a portion of Scripture be read, and prayer offered at the most convenient hour every evening. But some are of opinion that there ought to be more definite provision for the instruction or rational amusement of the boys, who at an age when they are scarcely fit to govern themselves, are separated from the parental roof from Monday till Friday or Saturday every week, and thrown into the society of promiscuous strangers. Under these circumstances, in connexion with hard work and constant exposure in the open air, boys are observed to fall off greatly in the intelligence and cheerfulness of their appearance for some time after leaving school for labour; but the mine-shop has hitherto appeared to be a necessary evil, for which no one has been able to devise a remedy, though its actual tendency to undo much of the good effected by schooling is admitted on all hands. The continued attendance at school and public worship on Sunday, with the fact that many of the boys return to the day schools in winter for some years, are redeeming circumstances.

On the whole it may, perhaps, safely be said, that if any one desires to see the utmost contrast exhibited in the condition, methods, and results of education, he cannot better attain his object than by passing from the collier village of Willington to the lead mining parish of Middleton-on-Teesdale.

I have the honour to be,

My Lord Duke and Gentlemen,

Your most obedient humble Servant,

ALEXANDER FREDERIC FOSTER,

Assistant Commissioner.

To the Commissioners

Appointed to inquire into the

State of Popular Education in England.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A.

EDUCATIONAL ENDOWMENTS in the Unions of DURHAM, AUCKLAND,
WEARDALE, PENRITH, and WIGTON.

	Annual Amount.
	£ s. d.
1. * Anna Swyfte, 1604. King James' Free Grammar school, Bishop Auckland. Six boys on the foundation. None are free scholars. - - -	70 0 0
2. Lord Crewe, 1720. To clothe and educate 30 poor boys. Now appropriated to the Barrington boys' school, Bishop Auckland - - -	80 0 0
3. John Walton, 1768. To educate 24 poor children at Bishop Auckland and Shildon. Administered by the friends, for the maintenance of two schools -	59 0 0
4. Bishop Barrington, 1819. "For the religious, moral, and useful education of poor children in the diocese of Durham" - - -	436 0 0
5. John Cuthbert, 1783. For a school at Witton-le-Wear. Now received by the postmaster, who likewise acts as village schoolmaster, &c. -	8 0 0
6. Elizabeth Donald. For Hubbock's school, West Auckland - - -	19 0 0
7. Henry Wilson. To educate two poor boys at Tudhoe school - - -	1 0 0
8. William Hartwell, 1724. Hartwell School, Stanhope. The Dean and Chapter are Trustees - -	18 0 0
9. Bishop Barrington, 1819, and others. To support 10 schools in the parish of Stanhope. The rector of Stanhope trustee. (86l. of this sum belongs to No. 4.) - - -	228 0 0
10. * Cardinal Langley, Durham. To support plain song and elementary schools. Fallen into disuse after long misappropriation - - -	20 13 4
11. * Henry Smith, 1598. That some good trade might be devised for setting the youth and other idle persons to work. This seems to have been an early idea of an industrial school, but it has never been so carried out. About 300l. of the income is distributed annually among the poor - -	464 6 0
12. Finney and others. Bluecoat school, Durham, in the parish of St. Nicholas - - -	23 0 0
13. John Cock, 1701. For instructing 36 poor children in the parish of St. Oswald, Durham. Trustees, the vicar and churchwardens of this parish -	31 10 0

* These sums seem not to be realizing the objects originally intended.

		Annual Amount.		
		£	s.	d.
14.	Master of Sherburn Hospital, with the sanction of the trustees, about to devote to the education of the poor	280	0	0
15.	Lord Crewe, 1702. For education, Brancepeth	5	0	0
16.	Dean and Chapter. Training school, Durham	28	0	0
17.	Parochial school, Crook	8	0	0
18.	Queen Elizabeth's Grammar School, Penrith	26	0	0
19.	Robinson's free schools, Wm. Robinson, 1661. For a free poor school in Penrith; churchwardens trustees	25	0	0
20.	Do. do. Spinning and knitting school, Penrith	7	0	0
21.	Sir Philip Musgrave, Edenhall school	25	0	0
22.	*Howrigg school. On mortgages	28	0	0
23.	Skirwith school, 1829. Founded by subscriptions	25	0	0
24.	*Thomas Burbank, 1575. Great Blencow free grammar school. Not applied in accordance with the founder's will. The master alone reaps the benefit of the endowment. No free scholars	160	0	0
25.	Newbiggin school, parish of Dacre	3	0	0
26.	Threlkeld school, 1744. Towngate estate	6	0	0
27.	Scott and Wilson, 1758. Stainton school, parish of Dacre	10	0	0
28.	Rev. Joseph Nelson, 1750 and 1815. Skelton school	32	0	0
29.	Wm. Elan, &c., 1743. Ainstable school	10	0	0
30.	Armathwaite school, 1850. Endowed by subscription	2	0	0
31.	John Scott, 1759. Salkeld Gate school	3	0	0
32.	Mingrisdale school	35	0	0
33.	John Sowerby. Southernby school	3	0	0
34.	Navy Stock. Watermillock school	31	0	0
35.	Joseph Hutchinson, 1726. The free school, Hunsonby Quarter	52	0	0
36.	Mr. Magplett. Maughanby free school	84	0	0
37.	H. C. Howard, 1722. Two schools at Matterdale	28	0	0
38.	Endowment Fund, 1810. Hutton Roof school	50	0	0
39.	Various gifts since 1745. Kirkoswald school	17	0	0
40.	Subscriptions vested in land, 1724. Fieldhead school	11	0	0
41.	Thomas Tallentine, 1775. Renwick school	5	0	0
42.	John Sowerby. Castle Sowerby school	5	0	0
43.	Donor and date unknown. Hutton-Marr school	21	0	0
44.	John Brown, 1763. High Hesket school	18	0	0
45.	M. Scott and J. Wilson, 1758. Stainton school	5	0	0
46.	M. Caldbeck, 1749. Ireby parish school	9	0	0
47.	M. Caldbeck and others, 1726. Uldale school	33	0	0
48.	John Jefferson, 1744. Church Hill school	1	0	0
49.	R. Brownrigge, 1688. Howbeck school. (Rest lost)	3	0	0
50.	Mrs. Thomlinson, 1753. Allonby school	7	0	0
51.	Subscribed endowment, 1686. Bothel school (Torpennyhow)	54	0	0

* See Note on p. 374.

		Annual Amount.		
		£	s.	d.
52.	Thomas Richardson, 1840. Allonby Friends' schools	50	0	0
53.	Thos. Wm. Christie, 1850. Kilhow schools	44	0	0
54.	Margaret Hodgson, 1792. Wiggonby school	183	0	0
55.	Joseph Thomlinson, 1798. Thursby school	14	0	0
56.	Richard O'Smotherlaw and others, 1612. Bromfield free school	43	0	0
57.	John Jefferson, 1744. Craggs school (Westward parish)	11	0	0
58.	Various gifts, 1730 and since. Wigton grammar school	66	0	0
59.	Dean and Chapter, Henry VIII., and after the "Restoration" again by the Dean and Chapter, for teaching grammar to 18 poor boys (numerous sources)	1,000	0	0
60.	*Thomas Pattenson, 1785. Easton school, in the parish of Bowness, has been closed upwards of seven years	7	0	0
Total		£4,010	9	4

* See Note on p. 374.

APPENDIX B.

SOURCES of VOLUNTARY CONTRIBUTIONS proportionally calculated.

UNIONS.	Parishes and Collieries.	Centesimal Proportion of Subscriptions paid by				
		Landowners.	Occupiers or Tenants of Land.	Owners or Lessees of Mines.	Householders.	Ministers of Religion.
DURHAM	Framwellgate - - -	32·0	4·0	—	—	64·0
	Shincliffe - - -	40·0	—	50·0	2·0	8·0
	Brancepeth - - -	50·0	—	—	—	50·0
	St. Nicholas (Durham)	40·0	—	—	—	60·0
	Belmont Colliery - -	—	—	100·0	—	—
	Londonderry Colliery, 1.	—	—	100·0	—	—
	Kelloe Colliery - - -	—	—	100·0	—	—
	Londonderry Colliery, 2.	—	—	100·0	—	—
	Oakenshaw Colliery -	—	—	100·0	—	—
	Frankland Colliery -	—	—	100·0	—	—
AUCKLAND	Byersgreen - - -	29·0	—	35·0	—	36·0
	Whitworth - - -	18·0	2·0	80·0	—	—
	Firtree - - -	84·0	—	—	—	16·0
	Coundon - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—
	Old Shildon - - -	44·0	—	—	—	56·0
	Lynesack - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—
	St. Ann's Auckland	32·0	—	28·0	16·0	24·0
	Witton-le-Wear - - -	25·0	42·0	—	—	33·0
	Hunwick - - -	10·0	—	57·7	—	33·0
	Blackboy Colliery - -	—	—	100·0	—	—
	High Bitchburn Colliery	—	—	100·0	—	—
	Roddy Moor Colliery -	—	—	100·0	—	—
	Etherly Colliery, 1. -	—	—	100·0	—	—
	Ditto. 2. - - -	—	—	100·0	—	—
	Ditto. 3. - - -	—	—	100·0	—	—
	Rushyford - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—
Average on 26 returns		7·0	1·6	56·0	0·7	14·7
WEARDALE	Stanhope (10 schools) -	80·0	—	(?)*	—	20·0
	Wolsingham - - -	60·0	—	—	6·0	34·0
	Towlaw, Church - - -	54·0	—	—	33·0	13·0
	Ditto Wesleyan - -	—	—	100·0	—	—
PENRITH	Hunstonworth - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—
	Edenhall - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—
	Kirkoswald - - -	88·0	—	—	—	12·0
	Penrith, O.W. - - -	7·0	—	—	93·0	—
	Greystoke - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—
	Hutton Marr - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—
	Ousby - - -	73·0	—	—	—	27·0
	Renwick - - -	60·0	—	—	—	40·0
WIGTON	Culgaith - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—
	Ainstable - - -	67·0	—	—	—	33·0
	Aspatria - - -	90·0	—	—	—	10·0
	Bolton - - -	80·0	—	—	—	20·0
	Bromfield - - -	60·0	15·0	—	5·0	20·0
	Ireby - - -	100·0	—	—	—	—
	Wigton - - -	31·0	—	—	66·0	3·0
	Holme Cultram - - -	—	—	—	—	100·0
Allhallows - - -	65·0	—	—	—	35·0	
Average on 21 returns		67·0	0·7	2·8	9·7	17·4

* From other sources I know that W. B. Beaumont, Esqr., subscribes £100 per annum, and the London Lead Company paid down in one sum £500.

APPENDIX C.

SUMMARY OF SUPPLY AND DEMAND in the FIVE UNIONS OF DURHAM, AUCKLAND, WEARDALE, PENRITH, and WIGTON.

Unions.	Day Schools. of every kind in 1858.			Children between 3 and 15 Years of Age in 1858.			Children between 6 and 10 Years of Age in 1858.			Children between 10 and 13 Years of Age in 1858.			Children between 6 and 12 Years of Age in 1858.			Population, 1858.		Observations.
	Public.	Private.	Total.	Total Number.	Total Number on the Books.	Per-centage of the Total on Books.	Total Number.	Average Number at School.	Per-centage of total Number.	Total Number.	Average Number actually at School.	Per-centage of those actually at School.	Total Number.	Average Number in attendance.	Per-centage of those actually at School.	Total.	Per-centage at School.	
Durham -	47	58	—	13,502	6,137	45·45	4,287	2,871	62·0	3,013	1,046	35·0	7,302	3,717	51·0	46,743	13·13, or 1 in 8.	47·0 per cent. of this population are occu- pied in coal and iron mining.
Auckland	47	54	101	11,840	6,604	57·88	3,438	3,044	88·5	2,415	1,284	53·0	5,853	4,323	74·0	37,404	17·52, or 1 in 6.	56·0 per cent. of this population are occu- pied in coal min- ing.
Weardale	25	15	40	5,711	1,907	33·99	1,718	1,006	58·5	1,207	527	43·0	2,925	1,633	52·0	18,728	10·19, or 1 in 10.	60·0 per cent. of this population are occu- pied in lead, iron, and coal mining.
Penrith -	54	28	82	6,098	3,244	53·22	2,134	1,341	63·0	1,500	788	52·5	3,634	2,129	58·6	23,260	13·95, or 1 in 7.	39·9 per cent. of this population are occu- pied in agricul- ture.
Wigton -	51	35	86	6,655	3,632	54·56	2,190	1,407	64·0	1,533	902	59·2	3,728	2,309	62·0	23,870	15·22, or 1 in 7.	41·3 of this popu- lation are en- gaged in agricul- ture.
Totals -	224	190	414	43,304	21,844	49·61	13,769	9,469	69·0	9,673	4,547	47·0	23,442	14,106	59·8	105,065	14·32 or 1 in 7.	

APPENDIX D.

SUMMARY OF COLLIERY RETURNS in DURHAM UNION, prepared for the Education Commissioners' Inquiry into the State of Popular Education.

TABLE I.

—	Name of Colliery.	Number of Children between 3 and 10 Years of Age								Total	
		At Day School.		At Sunday School.		Employed at Home.		At Home Unemployed.		Number of Children between 3 and 10.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	Hetton	309	365	341	405	—	4	131	123	440	492
2	Seaton	111	107	108	113	20	11	39	52	170	176
3	Grange	44	40	44	50	—	—	48	52	48	52
4	North Hetton	77	75	85	102	—	17	21	27	99	119
5	Keppier Grange	28	36	28	33	—	—	31	52	31	52
6	Cocken	25	22	25	11	—	2	9	13	40	38
7	Elvet	10	9	6	7	—	—	3	3	10	12
8	Littletown	31	31	28	28	—	1	7	9	38	42
9	Sherburn	124	139	109	128	1	1	40	51	179	208
10	Sherburn House	32	28	29	27	—	—	11	13	43	45
11	Frankland	19	27	17	22	—	1	6	4	26	36
12	Shildon Lodge	13	17	15	20	11	15	12	15	38	50
13	Oakenshaw	51	77	50	88	5	20	48	23	100	120
14	Whitwell	43	38	53	48	—	1	—	—	89	92
15	Brandon	25	30	25	37	—	—	7	7	32	37
16	Belmont	26	33	21	37	7	8	20	25	74	103
17	East Hetton	90	41	54	21	—	—	71	100	160	140
18	Keppier	18	12	11	7	—	3	—	—	18	15
19	West Hetton, &c.	248	252	329	259	83	57	152	208	433	512*
20	Shincliffe and Houghall	116	92	78	84	—	—	13	26	140	138
21	Brancepeth	65	58	84	32	—	—	3	10	103	100
	Totals	1,505	1,529	1,477	1,502	77	141	664	808	2,309	2,577

* 12 pits.

APPENDIX D.—continued.

SUMMARY OF COLLIERY RETURNS in DURHAM UNION, prepared for the Education Commissioners' Inquiry into the State of Popular Education.

TABLE II.

—	Name of Colliery.	Number of Children between 13 and 15 Years of Age.														Total Number of Children between 10 and 15.	
		At work in the Mines.		At Work at Home.		At Day School.		At Evening School.		At Sunday Schools.		At both Evening and Sunday School.		Neither at Work nor at School.		M.	F.
		M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.		
1	Hetton	263	—	1	167	—	—	25	—	106	164	13	—	50	56	294	223
2	Santon	90	—	8	87	10	38	9	5	81	51	9	5	—	2	103	75
3	Grange	33	—	4	4	4	8	—	—	27	18	—	—	1	14	43	20
4	N. Hetton	49	—	2	32	—	—	15	12	48	31	2	—	—	—	51	32
5	Keepier Grange	26	—	7	1	—	—	—	—	25	6	—	—	—	6	33	6
6	Cocken	26	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	18	10	—	—	—	3	31	13
7	Elvet	6	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	7	—
8	Littleton	21	—	1	4	—	—	10	4	25	9	9	8	1	—	27	13
9	Sherburn	94	—	—	12	—	—	13	8	70	29	5	2	—	10	113	58
10	Sherburn House	28	—	—	3	—	—	2	—	17	10	—	—	—	—	20	15
11	Frankland	19	—	—	1	—	—	3	—	15	9	—	—	—	1	18	10
12	Shildon Lodge	10	—	2	13	—	—	—	—	12	10	13	10	—	—	12	13
13	Oakenshaw	55	—	—	14	—	—	12	—	30	12	12	—	—	—	55	26
14	Whitwell	48	—	—	9	12	20	—	—	48	32	—	—	—	4	62	43
15	Brandon	10	—	—	5	6	8	—	—	11	10	—	—	6	2	20	18
16	Belmont	29	—	1	—	—	—	8	—	35	10	—	—	—	—	78	10
17	East Hetton	106	—	—	—	—	—	57	—	67	18	—	—	14	53	120	71
18	Keepier	12	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	7	3	—	—	—	—	12	3
19	West Hetton, &c.	191	—	30	43	—	—	33	10	53	64	80	54	57	123	278	283
20	Shimcliffe	75	—	4	24	—	—	14	—	15	9	3	—	1	3	84	33
21	Braucepeth	69	—	—	—	—	—	5	1	43	84	—	—	45	75	182	110
	Totals	1,280	—	56	372	32	80	208	42	833	539	150	74	155	357	1,651	1,089

APPENDIX D.—continued.

SUMMARY of COLLIERY RETURNS in AUCKLAND UNION, prepared for the Education Commissioners' Inquiry into the State of Popular Education.

Total Number of Children between 13 and 15 Years of Age.			Number of Children at Day Schools.			Number of Working Boys who				Number of Parents who can									Name of the Colliery or Works.
						Are occupied in the Pits.	Attend both Sunday and Evening School.	Attend Sunday School only.	Attend Evening School only.	Read and Write.			Read only.			Neither Read nor Write.			
M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.					M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	
3	8	11	2	2	4	3	—	1	—	2	2	4	—	1	1	3	2	5	1. Dovefold.
37	25	62	13	10	23	10	—	3	—	20	11	31	1	12	13	3	5	8	2. Job's Hill.
13	19	32	4	13	17	3	—	—	—	9	10	19	7	4	11	5	10	15	3. Job's Hill Bank.
6	5	11	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	7	3	10	3	4	7	—	3	3	4. Buarry Burn.
94	83	174	24	28	52	35	—	22	1	56	36	92	13	29	42	26	32	58	5. Bowden Close.
9	7	16	4	2	6	—	—	—	—	12	9	21	1	1	2	1	3	4	6. Helmington Row.
58	68	116	25	32	57	26	—	22	—	88	21	59	6	17	23	5	13	18	7. North Woodymoor.
16	14	30	6	7	13	1	—	1	—	24	12	36	4	14	18	2	4	6	8. Woodhouses.
10	13	23	2	4	6	1	—	1	—	12	9	21	1	5	6	4	6	10	9. Billy Row.
61	65	116	36	33	63	22	—	19	—	26	17	43	9	17	26	13	15	28	10. Bitchburn.
151	149	300	74	61	135	69	—	6	—	97	91	188	30	27	57	38	36	72	11. Escomb.
125	121	246	63	65	128	45	—	2	—	95	69	164	32	35	67	29	34	63	12. Etherley and Toft Hill.
50	63	113	13	17	30	10	27	27	—	47	39	86	3	7	10	9	14	23	13. Shildon Lodge.
49	74	143	29	44	73	17	4	67	4	60	42	102	9	16	25	16	31	47	14. Evenwood.
87	67	154	27	27	54	41	2	30	8	51	35	86	14	33	47	31	37	68	15. Roddymoor.
15	20	35	2	—	2	22	—	7	—	10	7	17	2	5	7	6	6	12	16. Brandon. No school within 3 miles.
64	40	113	25	27	52	41	2	20	3	32	32	64	2	9	11	29	33	62	17. Stanley Hill Top.
52	54	110	27	29	56	34	12	12	6	48	37	85	8	19	27	8	5	13	18. Sunnyside.
26	25	51	13	21	34	23	—	—	—	15	8	23	1	6	7	5	2	7	19. Dan's Castle.
946	912	1,858	384	422	806	409	58	328	19	661	490	1,151	146	261	407	229	293	522	Total Colliery Returns in Bp. Auckland.
77	70	147	32	23	61	32	—	—	27	72	79	151	11	8	14	6	12	18	20. Towlaw Iron Works (in Weardale).
567	614	1,181	236	255	491	106	—	—	—	518	431	949	22	40	62	40	54	94	21. Shildon Engine Works. See Lead Mine Returns, tabulated.
644	684	1,328	268	283	552	138	—	362	27	590	510	1,100	33	43	76	46	66	112	Total of Towlaw Iron Works and Shildon Engine Works.

APPENDIX E.

SUMMARY OF LEAD-MINING RETURNS for the Education Commissioners' Inquiry into the State of Popular Education.

Educational State of the Lead-mining Districts of Durham, Northumberland, and Cumberland in 1858.

Total Number of Children between 3 and 15 Years of Age.			Number of Children at Day Schools.		Number of Working Boys who				Number of Parents who can									Unmarried Men and Youths who can			Names of Districts and Works.
					Are occupied in the Mines.	Attend both Sunday and Evening School.	Attend Sunday School only.	Attend Evening School only.	Read and Write.			Read only.			Neither Read nor Write.			Read and Write.	Read only.	Neither Read nor Write.	
M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.					M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.				M.
276	300	576	107	133	153	5	99	9	284	232	516	11	29	40	13	21	34	—	—	—	East Weardale. West do. West Allendale. East do.
401	368	769	144	152	147	5	111	2	273	224	497	12	17	29	17	14	31	—	—	—	
214	233	447	124	125	41	—	41	—	129	106	235	9	38	47	5	10	15	—	—	—	
447	415	862	221	160	61	5	42	—	330	259	589	20	78	98	10	23	33	—	—	—	
1,338	1,316	2,654	596	570	406	15	293	11	1,016	821	1,837	52	162	214	45	68	113	—	—	—	Total of the W. B. districts. Total of the London Lead Company's districts. Total of the Derwent Company's district.
1,050 *(513)	1,043 557)	3,102 (1,070)	483	423	473	70	364	3	763	629	1,392	61	148	209	42	71	113	720	73	28	
180	165	345	69	54	60	9	128	11	91	74	165	12	23	34	8	16	24	—	—	—	
2,577	2,524	5,101	1,148	1,047	938	94	785	25	1,870	1,524	3,394	125	332	457	95	155	250	720	73	28	Total of all the Lead-mining Returns, which indicates a total population of 17,659. Shildon Engine Works. Towlaw Iron Works (Weardale).
567	614	1,181	236	255	106	—	362	—	518	431	949	22	40	62	40	64	94	354	16	19	
77	70	147	32	28	32	—	—	27	72	79	151	11	3	14	6	12	18	—	—	—	

* These 513 boys are those between 6 and 12 years of age, and the 567 girls are those between 6 and 14, still under parental care.

APPENDIX F.

SUMMARY of the RETURNS of OUT-DOOR PAUPER CHILDREN between 3 and 15 YEARS of AGE in the UNIONS of DURHAM, AUCKLAND, WEARDALE, PENRITH, and WIGTON, in the Year 1858.

Unions.	Population in 1858.	Outdoor Paupers, July 1, 1858.	Centesimal Proportion of Outdoor Paupers to Population.	Total Number of Children 3 to 15 in each Union.			Total Number of Pauper Children 3 to 15 in each Union.			Centesimal Proportion of Pauper Children to total Number.	Pauper Children attending Sunday School.			Pauper Children attending Day School.			Pauper Children at Work for Wages or Food.			Idle, or learning to beg or steal.		
				M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.		M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.
1 Durham -	46,473	1,002	2.3	6,784	6,718	13,502	106	184	380	2.8	112	82	194	90	84	183	27	36	63	70	64	134
2 Auckland	37,464	1,238	3.3	5,698	5,642	11,340	194	222	416	3.7	113	161	274	110	127	237	29	37	66	55	59	113
3 Weardale	18,728	570	3.0	2,870	2,841	5,711	87	99	186	3.3	48	60	108	52	57	109	9	13	22	26	29	55
4 Penrith -	23,620	903	3.9	3,063	3,033	6,096	79	76	155	2.6	55	49	104	54	51	105	11	7	18	14	18	32
5 Wigton -	23,870	962	4.0	3,364	3,201	6,565	77	76	153	2.6	63	51	114	59	56	115	5	4	9	13	16	29
Total -	150,065	4,765	3.2	21,779	21,525	43,304	633	657	1,290	2.9	391	403	794	374	375	749	81	97	178	178	185	363

N.B.—4.31 per cent. of the population is the average of England and Wales, so that the average of these 5 Unions is 1.1 below the average of the whole kingdom. See "Poor Rates and Pauperism," '98 (B), page 5. Parliamentary Paper (Mr. Grey), 26th February 1858, Ordered.

APPENDIX G.

DENOMINATIONAL SUMMARY OF SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

Religious Denomination.*	Name of the Union.	Number of Schools.	Total Number of Scholars belonging to the School.			Average Number of Scholars in Sunday Attendance.			Number of paid Superintendents and Teachers.			Number of voluntary Superintendents and Teachers.		
			Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
C.	Durham Union - -	22	800	825	1,625	582	639	1,221	11	11	22	41	62	103
I.	Ditto - -	2	213	181	394	151	114	272	—	—	—	24	11	35
N.W.	Ditto - -	7	377	331	708	315	266	581	—	—	—	65	39	104
O.W.	Ditto - -	12	689	548	1,237	545	394	939	—	—	—	154	83	237
P.M.	Ditto - -	14	982	813	1,795	800	651	1,451	—	—	—	220	82	302
R.C.	Ditto - -	2	52	64	116	46	56	102	1	1	2	2	—	2
	Durham Union Total -	59	3,113	2,762	5,875	2,446	2,120	4,566	12	12	24	506	277	783
C.	Auckland Union	21	675	627	1,302	520	503	1,023	15	9	24	59	44	103
N.W.	Ditto - -	2	130	106	236	107	86	193	—	—	—	21	9	30
O.W.	Ditto - -	21	1,091	909	2,000	789	685	1,474	—	—	—	235	97	332
P.M.	Ditto - -	23	1,242	1,060	2,302	999	860	1,859	—	—	—	301	91	392
R.C.	Ditto - -	1	36	38	74	26	23	49	—	—	—	1	—	1
U.M.	Ditto - -	3	119	119	238	87	94	181	—	—	—	29	20	49
B.	Ditto - -	2	46	42	88	33	31	64	—	—	—	11	8	19
N.	Ditto - -	1	74	53	127	48	42	90	—	—	—	18	7	25
	Auckland Union Total -	74	3,413	2,954	6,367	2,609	2,324	4,933	15	9	24	675	276	951

* C. is for Church of England ; O. W. for Wesleyan Old Connexion ; N. W. Wesleyans New Connexion ; U. M. United Methodists ; C. M. Calvinistic Methodists ; P. M. Primitive Methodists ; I. Independents ; B. Baptists ; R. C. Roman Catholics ; U. Unitarians ; O. Other Denominations ; and N. if the school is not connected with any Denomination.

APPENDIX G.—continued.

Denominational Summary of Sunday Schools—continued.

Religious Denomination.*	Name of the Union.	Number of Schools.	Total Number of Scholars belonging to the School.			Average Number of Scholars in Sunday Attendance.			Number of paid Superintendents and Teachers.			Number of voluntary Superintendents and Teachers.		
			Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
C. O.W. P.M. U.M. B.	Weardale Union -	13	363	314	677	245	230	475	2	—	2	19	24	43
	Ditto -	12	566	515	1,081	442	345	787	—	—	—	135	44	179
	Ditto -	10	578	561	1,139	436	400	836	—	—	—	131	33	164
	Ditto -	1	30	20	50	25	15	40	—	—	—	2	6	15
	Ditto -	1	56	39	95	50	30	80	—	—	—	5	7	12
	Weardale Union Total -	37	1,593	1,449	3,042	1,198	1,020	2,218	2	—	2	299	114	431
	Summary of Durham Unions:—													
	1. Durham -	59	3,113	2,762	5,875	2,446	2,120	4,566	11	11	22	506	277	783
	2. Auckland -	74	3,413	2,954	6,367	2,609	2,324	4,933	15	9	24	575	276	951
	3. Weardale -	37	1,593	1,449	3,042	1,198	1,020	2,218	2	—	2	299	114	413
	Total of Durham Unions	170	8,119	7,165	15,284	6,253	5,464	11,717	28	20	48	1,380	667	2,147
C. O.W. P.M. I. O. U.M.	Penrith Union -	30	719	775	1,494	561	592	1,153	7	5	12	51	53	104
	Ditto -	16	437	400	837	310	288	598	—	—	—	72	46	118
	Ditto -	2	46	35	81	36	28	64	—	—	—	13	8	21
	Ditto -	1	80	100	180	65	85	150	—	—	—	13	12	25
	Ditto -	3	51	53	104	44	39	83	—	—	—	7	4	11
	Ditto -	1	81	29	60	27	27	54	—	—	—	4	4	8
	Penrith Union Total -	53	1,364	1,392	2,756	1,043	1,059	2,102	7	5	12	160	127	287

* See note on p. 384.

APPENDIX G.—continued.

Denominational Summary of Sunday Schools—continued.

Religious Denomination.*	Name of the Union.	Number of Schools.	Total Number of Scholars belonging to the School.			Average Number of Scholars in Sunday Attendance.			Number of paid Superintendents and Teachers.			Number of voluntary Superintendents and Teachers.		
			Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
C.	Wigton Union - -	24	885.	757	1,642	729	596	1,325	8	1	9	69	76	145
O.W.	Ditto - - -	6	110	147	257	93	124	217	1	2	3	17	21	38
P.M.	Ditto - - -	1	29	35	64	18	25	43	—	—	—	3	4	7
I.	Ditto - - -	3	98	138	236	78	110	188	—	—	—	18	17	35
O.	Ditto - - -	2	47	69	116	36	52	88	—	—	—	9	8	17
N.	Ditto - - -	2	69	83	152	60	63	123	—	—	—	8	10	18
	Wigton Union Total -	38	1,238	1,229	2,467	1,014	970	1,984	9	3	12	124	136	260
	Summary of Cumberland Unions:—													
	1. Penrith - - -	53	1,364	1,392	2,756	1,043	1,059	2,102	7	5	12	160	127	287
	2. Wigton - - -	38	1,238	1,229	2,467	1,014	970	1,984	9	3	12	124	136	260
	Total of Cumberland Unions - }	91	2,620	2,621	5,223	2,057	2,029	4,086	16	8	24	284	263	547
	Total of Durham Unions	170	8,119	7,165	15,284	6,253	5,464	11,717	28	20	48	1,480	667	2,147
	Total of Cumberland Unions - }	91	2,602	2,621	5,223	2,057	2,029	4,036	16	8	24	284	263	547
	Total of the Five Unions	261	10,721	9,786	20,507	8,310	7,493	15,803	44	28	72	1,764	930	2,694

* See note on p. 384.

APPENDIX H.

I.

REGULATIONS of the SCHOOLS connected with the Mining Establishments of WENTWORTH BLACKETT BEAUMONT, Esq., M.P., in East and West ALLENDALE and WEARDALE.

I.—RELIGIOUS AND MORAL TRAINING.

1. These schools are open to the children of parents of all religious denominations.

2. The religious instruction comprises attendance at morning and evening prayers, regular practice in singing psalms and hymns, and the daily reading of passages in the Old and New Testament.

3. The portions of Scripture selected for reading are such as admit of plain and practical explanations, having reference to general matters of faith and duty, as recognized by all denominations of Christians in these districts.

4. The object of such instruction is to endeavour to promote feelings of reverence towards God, and a plain understanding of the ordinary duties of Christian life, so far as they can be brought within the comprehension of young children.

5. From nine o'clock each morning until half-past nine is expressly occupied in religious instruction, as follows :—

6. From nine to a quarter-past nine the children read the Scriptures, and those who can do so commit two or more verses to memory each morning.

7. At a quarter-past nine, and a quarter before four, morning and evening prayers are read by the master, preceded and followed by two verses of a hymn and by exercises in psalmody, with general religious instruction and advice.

8. The children are occasionally exercised in committing to memory poetry of a religious and moral character.

9. General religious instruction is also, as much as possible, combined with the object and other lessons given to the scholars.

10. A certificate will be given by the master at the end of each year to those scholars who are uniformly attentive to the preceding arrangements, and who acquire not only a recollection of passages of Scripture and of sacred poetry, but can reasonably explain the practical application of the same, and whose general good conduct is in conformity with these regulations.

On receiving such a certificate a second time, the scholar will be entitled to an office ticket (see Regulation No. 35), as also for every succeeding year when such certificate is obtained.

II.—GENERAL DIRECTION AND MANAGEMENT.

11. The general direction and management of the schools founded by Mr. Beaumont is reserved to himself, as patron, and to any one or more acting under his written authority.

12. Two agents, and four miners or other workmen, are to be elected in each district on the first subsistence day* in each year, to act as

* The subsistence day named in these Regulations is that on which the monthly advances of cash are made to the miners.

visitors to the schools along with the resident agent of each district, to promote, as far as possible, the observance of these regulations, and to enter any remarks in a book, to be called the Visitors' Book, kept in the school.

13. Any two of the visitors, by a written notice signed by them, and sent to the resident agent, may require a special meeting to consider any matters relating to the school; the subject to be considered being expressly stated in writing, and a copy of such notice is to be sent to the chief agent at Allenheads, who shall thereupon appoint a meeting not later than one month from the time of receiving such requisition.

14. Any representation in writing, after being discussed at such meeting, shall be submitted to the consideration of the patron of the schools, if signed by any three or more of the seven visitors.

III.—ADMISSION OF SCHOLARS.

15. The children, whether boys or girls, of miners or other workmen employed by Mr. Beaumont, are eligible to be admitted as scholars on the Monday morning next after each subsistence day, and at no other time, unless specially allowed by the master.

16. The children of other persons, who are not employed by Mr. Beaumont, may be received at the same time, provided an order in writing for such admission is first obtained from the resident agent of the district in which the school is situated.

17. All children are eligible as attendants only so long as they obey the regulations of the school.

18. If on any account the master objects to the admission of any child, as being too young, or in ill-health, &c., he shall insert a statement of his reasons for such rejection in the visitors' book.

IV.—TIME OF ATTENDANCE.

19. The time of attendance in these schools is regulated by lunar months of four weeks, commencing on the Monday after each subsistence day.

20. The hours of attendance are from nine to twelve in the forenoon, and from half-past one to a quarter-past four in the afternoon, on Monday to Friday (both days inclusive) in each week. But in the months of November, December, January, and February, the schools close at an earlier hour in the afternoon, to admit of the children getting home before dark.

21. An exact register of attendance of scholars is to be kept by the master and mistress of each school, in a book provided for the purpose.

22. A monthly report of the general attendance, with other particulars as required in a printed form, is to be sent to the mining office in each district, not later than the Wednesday next after each subsistence day.

23. A warning bell is rung (a few strokes only) five minutes before the time of commencing school. At nine and at half-past one, the school bell is rung *exactly one minute*. Punctual attendance of the scholars in their place in school *before* the bell has ceased ringing, is especially desired, and is rewarded with a ticket.

24. Particular attention is directed to the regulations as to tickets, and to the forfeiture of tickets for irregularity or absence; due allowance will be made in very wet or stormy weather, especially in case the children reside at a considerable distance from the school.

Parents or other friends are desired to send a written notice when the children under their care are unavoidably detained by illness or other cause; and it is in the discretion of the master, in such cases, to remit the whole or a portion of any forfeits incurred by absence.

25. The following holidays are observed; viz.:—

New Year's Day.

The annual pay day in each district.

Good Friday.

Monday and Tuesday in Easter week.

Monday and Tuesday in Whitsun week.

Five weeks about the time of hay harvest, commencing on the

Monday next before the subsistence day in July or August.

From the 22d December to 31st December, both inclusive.

26. In order that these holidays may not interfere with the regular monthly proportion of tickets, the following arrangement is to be observed:—

Three tickets to be given to each scholar on New Year's Day, the annual pay day, and on Good Friday.

Six tickets to be given at Easter and Whitsuntide.

Tickets to be given for the first week of the holidays commencing in July or August corresponding to the number gained by each scholar in the preceding week.

27. No other holidays to be given unless by a written order signed by the resident agent, and a copy of which is to be inserted in the visitors' book by the master.

V.—PAYMENTS.

28. Each scholar is to pay 6d. in advance for four weeks on the Monday morning next after each subsistence day.

29. If payment is not made at the required time, the scholar in such default shall be liable to the same forfeiture of tickets as in the case of absence.

30. School books, writing copies, and slates, &c. may be bought by the scholars, to be their own property, by applying to the master of each school, and the price charged will in every case be less than the actual cost, the difference or loss being paid by the patron of the school; or they may have *the requisite books, slates, and other materials* by the payment of 1s. in advance each quarter, viz., *on the first Monday* of January, April, July, and October, or by one payment of 3s. on the first Monday after the annual pay day in each year.

VI.—STUDIES.

31. The course of education comprises, in addition to the subjects already named, reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, natural history, mensuration, and drawing.

VII.—REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS.

32. Corporal punishment is disapproved of, but is not entirely prohibited. Every case of its infliction is to be specially reported in writing by the master in the visitors' book, and also in the monthly report.

33. Rewards are given daily, weekly, and monthly by means of tickets, and the punishments chiefly consist in the forfeiture of such tickets as described in the following regulations.

34. Daily rewards are given for punctuality and general good conduct.

Weekly rewards are given for attention to study.

A monthly reward is given for prompt payment of school fees.

35. Special rewards, called "Office tickets," are given from time to time for great merit and attention in particular departments. These tickets are to be retained permanently by the scholars, in order to produce the same in after-life as testimonials of good conduct at school.

36. Every scholar who has obtained four or more office tickets is entitled to a Bible, on application at the mining office of the district, on finally leaving school.

37. Every scholar who obtains 1,000 tickets in one year, over and above payment of forfeits, is entitled to an office ticket.

VIII.—TICKETS.

38. Ten tickets are given to each scholar, on punctual payment of the school fee of 6*d.* on the Monday morning next after the monthly subsistence day.

39. One ticket is given in the morning, and another in the afternoon, to each scholar who is in the school before the bell has ceased ringing at nine or half-past one o'clock.

40. One ticket may be given as an extra daily ticket to every scholar whose neat and clean appearance, and general good behaviour during the day, is such as to be entirely satisfactory to the teachers. Any occasion for reproof during the day will disqualify the scholar for receiving this extra ticket.

41. On every Friday afternoon, at three o'clock, the teachers will consider the progress of each scholar in his or her respective studies, and, if satisfactory, reward the same by a gift of one or more tickets, but on no account exceeding ten in number, this highest number being only given in extreme cases of merit.

42. The monthly account of tickets commences on the Monday morning when the school fees are paid.

43. The following table shows the greatest number of tickets that can be obtained. As these numbers are only given in cases of the highest merit, and are moreover liable to deductions by forfeiture, it may be observed that every scholar who has one half of the total numbers here stated, may be considered as making satisfactory progress, and all tickets above one-half indicate decided merit.

The number of tickets which may be received on each day (commencing with the school pay-day of each month) is shown by small figures; the larger figures show the highest total number of tickets that can be in the possession of a scholar during the lunar month.

	1st Week.	2d Week.	3d Week.	4th Week.
Monday - - -	13—13	3—38	3—63	3—88
Tuesday - - -	3—16	3—41	3—66	3—91
Wednesday - - -	3—19	3—44	3—69	3—94
Thursday - - -	3—22	3—47	3—72	3—97
Friday - - -	13—35	13—60	13—85	13—110

44. The scholars are liable to forfeiture of tickets, as follows :—

For entering the school after the bell has ceased ringing - - -	-	-	-	-	One ticket.
For absence one forenoon - - -	-	-	-	-	Two tickets.
„ one afternoon - - -	-	-	-	-	One ticket.
„ a whole day - - -	-	-	-	-	Four tickets.
„ two days - - -	-	-	-	-	Six tickets.
„ three or more days in one week - - -	-	-	-	-	Ten tickets.

45. If satisfactory reasons for absence be sent in writing, the master may remit the whole or part of such forfeits. It is to be observed, that the tickets are intended to *indicate progress* in study as well as attendance, and this is interfered with even when the cause of absence is satisfactory.

46. Special forfeits may be made by the teachers for any delinquency, and extending to any number of tickets, but every such case of special forfeits is to be entered in the visitors' book.

47. The children are desired to keep their tickets in a case or bag, and to exchange *ten* single tickets for a card of the value of *ten* tickets; *ten* such cards for a card worth *one hundred* tickets, and ten of these for a card of the value of *one thousand* tickets. This last card is to be kept by the scholar, and his name, and the date of its being obtained, is to be marked upon it by the master.

48. All tickets and cards, except in the case of "*one thousand* ticket cards," are to be delivered on the last Friday of each school lunar month, and the total number recorded. Each scholar is recommended to keep an account of the same.

49. These regulations as to tickets apply to any 10 lunar months of school attendance in each year, commencing on the Monday next after subsistence day in January.

50. Prizes consisting of books, mathematical instruments, pictures, maps, &c., will be given in each year to every scholar who has obtained 60 tickets in each of six or more lunar months. The best prizes are given to those who have most tickets in 10 lunar months.

T. SOPWITH,

Chief Agent of Mr. Beaumont's Mines in
East and West Allendale and Weardale.

II.

MORNING PRAYERS.

Awake, my soul, and with the sun
Thy daily stage of duty run ;
Shake off dull sloth, and early rise,
To pay thy morning sacrifice.

Redeem thy misspent moments past,
And live this day as if the last ;
Thy talents to improve take care ;
For the great day thyself prepare.

O Lord our Heavenly Father, Almighty and Everlasting God, who hast safely brought us to the beginning of this day ; Defend us in the same with Thy mighty power ; and grant that this day we fall into no sin, neither run into any kind of danger ; but that all our doings may be ordered by Thy governance, to do always that is righteous in Thy sight, through Jesus Christ our Lord. *Amen.*

Our Father, which art in Heaven, hallowed be Thy Name, Thy kingdom come, Thy will be done in earth as it is in heaven. Give us this day our daily bread, and forgive us our trespasses, as we forgive them that trespass against us ; and lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil ; for Thine is the kingdom, the power, and the glory, for ever and ever. *Amen.*

O Lord, shew Thy mercy upon us.

And grant us Thy salvation.

O Lord, save the Queen.

And mercifully hear us when we call upon Thee.

Endue Thy ministers with righteousness,

And make Thy chosen people joyful.

O Lord save Thy people.

And bless Thine inheritance.

Give peace in our time, O Lord.

*Because there is none other that fighteth for us, but only Thou,
O God.*

O God, make clean our hearts within us.

And take not Thy Holy Spirit from us.

The grace of our Lord Jesus Christ, and the love of God, and the fellowship of the Holy Ghost, be with us evermore. *Amen.*

O happy is the man who hears

Instruction's warning voice ;

And who celestial Wisdom makes

His early, only choice.

For she has treasures greater far

Than East or West unfold,

And her rewards more precious are

Than all their stores of gold.

III.

TEACHERS' REPORT.

SCHOOL at _____, No. _____
in the district of _____, 18 ____ .
REPORT for the _____ Lunar Month of 18 ____, commencing Monday
the _____ of _____, ending Friday the _____
of _____.

The master of this school is required to fill up the dates, and to answer the inquiries annexed, on three copies of this form. One copy is to be kept in a book at the school, one to be sent to the Mining Office in the district where the school is situated, and the third copy to be specially directed to "Mr. Sopwith, Allenheads," with the words "School Report" marked on the direction. These two latter copies are to be sent off by post or otherwise not later than the Wednesday next after each subsistence day.—Any observations, list of books wanted, &c., to be written on the other side of this paper.

Number of boys at present on the Register	-	-	_____
„ Girls	-	-	_____
Total	-	-	_____

Number of Boys present on the _____ day of _____,	being the first school day of this month-		
„ Girls	-	-	_____
Total	-	-	_____

Number of Boys present on the _____ day of _____,
 being the last school day of this month - _____
 „ Girls - - - - - _____
 Total - - - - - _____

Total Number of Scholars who have paid School Fees
 for this Month - - - - - _____
 Amount of School Fees received by the Master for
 this Month - - - - - £ : :
 How disposed of _____
 Amount received from Scholars this Month for
 Books, &c. - - - - - £ : :
 How disposed of _____

Number of Scholars who pay 3s. yearly for use of books _____
 „ „ 1s. quarterly „ _____
 „ „ for books, &c. as wanted - _____
 Being in all - - - - - _____

Account of the General Attendance _____
 „ „ Conduct _____
 „ „ Progress in Study _____
 „ „ Health _____
 Signature of Master _____
 „ Mistress _____

IV.
 CERTIFICATES.

This is the _____ Certificate received by the Scholar herein-named.

CERTIFICATE OF GOOD CONDUCT.

I hereby certify that _____, who has attended
 at _____ school upwards of _____ lunar months, in the
 year 18____, has been uniformly attentive to the arrangements specified
 in the school regulations Nos. 1 to 9, and has acquired not only a
 recollection of passages of Scripture and of Sacred Poetry, but can
 reasonably explain the practical application of the same. The general
 good conduct of the said scholar has been in conformity with the
 regulations of the school.

Date _____ of _____ 18

No. _____

Signed _____ Master.

V.

OFFICE TICKET.

In the several Schools connected with the Lead Mines and Smelting Mills of WENTWORTH BLACKETT BEAUMONT, Esq., M.P., special rewards called Office Tickets are given for Merit in particular departments, to be retained permanently by the Scholars who receive them, as testimonials of good conduct at School. Each Scholar who obtains four or more Office Tickets is entitled to receive a Bible on finally leaving School.

This OFFICE TICKET,

No. _____ was given on the _____ day of _____, 18____
to _____, a Scholar in _____ School, as
a Reward for _____, being the _____
Office Ticket received by the said _____.

(Signed) _____

VI.—TREASURER'S SCHOOL ACCOUNT.

TREASURER'S ACCOUNT for

SCHOOL for the Half Year ending on the

18 .

<i>Mon. of Funds available for the Support of this School.</i>				<i>Account of Cash actually received during the current Half Year.</i>						
				£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	
Endowment							From Endowment			
Donations by W. B. Beaumont, Esq.*							" Donations by W. B. Beaumont, Esq.			
Other donations							" Other donations			
School fees due from scholars							" School fees as stated below			
Money due from scholars for books and school materials							" Scholars for books, &c. as stated below			
TOTAL AMOUNT DUE							TOTAL AMOUNT RECEIVED			
ENDOWMENT	PARTICULARS OF RECEIPTS.						(Dates.)	PARTICULARS OF PAYMENTS.		
	Donations by W. B. Beaumont, Esq., viz. —						— of ———	To master for salary		
	Other Donations						— of ———	To do, do.		
	Received from master for school fees.—For payment for books.						— of ———	To mistress for do.		
	of						— of ———	To do. do.		
	of						— of ———	To assistants		
	of						— of ———	To do.		
	of						— of ———	For cleaning school		
	of						— of ———	For other payments as follows:—		
	or						— of ———	To General School Fund by payment to		
Totals							TOTAL AMOUNT PAID			
TOTAL AMOUNT RECEIVED										
The Treasurer is requested to ascertain from the master the value of all books and school materials, &c. which have been received during the current half year, and insert the same as follows:—							Name of School _____ In district of _____			
Value of new books and materials which have been received during the half year				£	s.	d.	Do. master _____ Mistress of _____			
Value of such books and materials as remain in stock and entirely unused at end of half year							Do. assistants _____			
Amount paid by scholars for books, &c.							Number of Boys _____ Girls _____ Total _____ at end of half year.			
							Signature of School Treasurer _____			
							Residence of ditto _____			
							Names of the visitors _____			
* The donations by W. B. Beaumont, Esq., will be paid at Allenheads Office to any one producing a stamped receipt, signed by the Treasurer of the school, on the subsistence day next before the end of each half year, and it is particularly desired that each half-year's donation be so applied for during the current half year.							It is particularly requested that this Report be delivered to _____ at Allenheads Office, on or before the 10th of July or 10th of January, for the respective half years ending on the 30th June and 31st December in each year.			
							For W. B. BEAUMONT, Esq. T. SORWITH.			

Mr. Foster's Report—Appendix.

APPENDIX I.

SUMMARY OF MECHANICS' INSTITUTES AND POPULAR LIBRARIES IN THE UNIONS OF DURHAM, AUCKLAND, WEARDALE, PENRITH, AND WIGTON.

Name and Locality.	Number of Members.	Library.					Lectures.	Periodicals taken in.
		History.	Biography.	Belles-Lettres.	Others.	Total.		
1. Durham Mechanics' Institute.	200	2,000	500	500	500	3,500	Occasionally -	28
2. Durham Young Men's Christian Association.	32	—	—	—	—	—	Monthly, from May till November.	None.
3. Durham Athenæum -	200	300	250	150	400	1,100	Monthly, November till May.	14
4. West Auckland Mechanics' Institute.	78	48	36	86	452	622	Occasionally -	8
5. Etherly Mechanics' Institute.	71	32	44	20	457	553	None - -	6
6. New Shildon Mechanics' Institute.	166	201	65	50	650	966	Weekly in winter, and occasionally in summer.	6
7. St. Helen's Colliery and Village Library.	121	103	86	1	256	346	3 annually -	2
8. Stanhope Library -	22	105	—	—	782	977	None - -	1
9. Stanhope Reading Room.	40	—	—	—	—	—	None - -	10
10. Towlaw Literary and Social Institution.	63	66	50	99	185	400	None - -	4
11. Westgate Village Library.	22	Not yet classified				1,387	None - -	5
12. Stanhope Parochial Lending Library.	72	40	9	16	85	150	None - -	None.
13. Penrith Farmers' Club	120	All special and appropriated				140	2 monthly -	12
14. Penrith Young Men's Christian Association and Library.	46	74	50	63	65	256	Monthly -	4
15. Penrith Workhouse Library.	60	51	34	162	190	380	None - -	3
16. Kirkoswald Parochial Library.	40	60	50	250	40	400	None - -	7
17. Hesketh Library -	30	20	22	—	98	140	None - -	None.
18. Watermillock District Library.	102	35	41	53	22	151	None - -	None.
19. Lazonby Village Library.	80	48	35	14	203	500	Occasionally -	14
20. Penrith Working Men's Reading Room.	260	Of all kinds				1,500	Occasionally -	9
21. Allenhead's Library and News Room.	102	105	71	284	506	1,177	Occasionally -	13
22. Coaleleugh Library and News Room.	107	108	52	385	339	944	None - -	7
23. Allen Smelt Mill Library.	112	54	50	114	630	848	None - -	1
24. Lead Company's Workmen's Library and Reading Room, Middleton.	139	100	111	—	969	1,180	Occasionally -	14
25. Lead Company's Workmen's Reading Room, Nenthead.	116	82	81	—	774	937	None - -	23
Total - - -	2,399	3,891	1,637	2,227	7,697	15,472	- - -	191

APPENDIX K.

I.

REGULATIONS of the LEAD COMPANY'S SCHOOLS in operation since 1818.

Week-day Schools.

1. That the schoolroom be kept in order, and the fire, books, and stationery be provided at the expense of the Company.

The parents of the Company's workmen's children taught at the school shall contribute 1s. per quarter for each child; and other parties shall be charged after the rate of 2s. 6d. per quarter.

2. That the school be opened with singing and praying, and the teaching be carried on not less than six hours each day, for five days in the week.

3. That the Sacred Scriptures in the authorized version, or extracts therefrom, shall be read and taught in school.

4. That no catechism peculiar to any religious denomination shall be used in the school, nor any peculiar tenets of any religious sect inculcated on the scholars.

5. All children belonging to the Lead Company's workmen, and the widows of deceased workmen, shall be required to enter the Company's week-day school at six years of age (and earlier if the parents think fit). The boys to attend from 6 to 12 years of age, and the girls from 6 to 14 years of age, if they so long remain under the paternal roof.

6. Every parent is required on sending his or her child to school to furnish the teacher, in writing, with the date of the child's birth.

7. If parents neglect to send their children to school at six years of age, or if, after entering school, the children are at any time absent therefrom, they shall not be at liberty to quit school at the period above named, nor until they have completed the required time of attendance, viz., six years in case of a boy and eight years in case of a girl.

8. That every child attending the Company's week-day school shall be required to attend twice every Sabbath such place of religious worship as his or her parents may think proper.

9. No child must be absent from school on any pretence whatever, unless he or she be sick, or have obtained leave from the superintendent. If a child be sick, the parent, with the child, are positively required to apply to the Company's surgeon; who, having seen the child, will certify whether he or she be unable to attend school; and the like certificate must be produced whenever afterwards the teacher may think proper.

10. No boy will be admissible to the Company's works who cannot produce a certificate from the Company's teacher, stating that he has complied with the above regulations, and that he has been of good behaviour, industrious, and has entered or is qualified to enter the Sabbath school.

Sabbath Schools.

1. That every child attending the Company's week-day school shall, when required, attend the Sabbath school taught in the Company's schoolroom on the Sabbath morning, and twice on the Sabbath day

such place of religious worship as his or her parents may think proper.

2. Every child must be present at the hour fixed for the opening of the school, and must come prepared with such portions of catechism, Bible lesson, &c. as may have been previously appointed by the superintendent or teacher, and must conform to all the school regulations.

3. That the Sacred Scriptures in the authorized version, or extracts therefrom, shall be read and taught in the school.

4. That no catechism peculiar to any religious denomination shall be used in the school, nor any peculiar tenets of any religious sect inculcated on the scholars.

5. A certificate from the Sunday school superintendent must be produced by every boy applying to go to the mine or any of the Company's works, certifying that he has been regular in his attendance at school and place of religious worship, and that he has been industrious and of good behaviour. If the superintendent cannot give him the required certificate, such boy must attend the week-day school till the teacher thereof can give him a good character.

6. Boys on attaining the age for working regularly underground will not be admitted unless they have passed their Bible examination, or can produce a certificate from the Sunday school superintendent, giving a sufficient reason for their not having passed such examination, and stating that their conduct is correct, that they are industrious, and are making suitable progress.

7. Any boy absenting himself from school or place of religious worship, or not conforming to the school regulations, or being guilty of any disorderly practices on the Sabbath, will subject himself to dismissal from the Company's works.

8. Every child of the Company's workmen will be presented with a Bible, on the production of a certificate from the Company's school inspector that such child has passed a satisfactory Bible examination prior to leaving the Sabbath school at which such child may have received instruction.

Exceptions applicable to both Schools.

1. In cases where the Company's workmen reside at such a distance from the Company's schools as may prevent the children attending thereat, in this instance as respects the week-day school, the Company contribute 2s. per quarter towards the education of each child taught at such school, provided the Company's school inspector on examination, certify that the child is being efficiently taught.

2. In cases wherein any of the Company's workmen shall declare in writing that they object, upon religious principles, to their children being educated in the Company's schools.

3. In either of said cases the workmen will be required to send their children to some other school for the full period named in the rules of the Company's schools.

Provided, that a journal of the attendance, progress, and behaviour of such children be furnished quarterly to the Company's agent; also a certificate of their regular attendance at some place of religious worship.

4. Boys educated as above, upon applying for work, will be required to produce certificates similar to those required from boys educated in the Company's schools; such certificates being counter-signed by the Company's school inspector, as regards the secular attainments of the boy.

APPENDIX K.

II.

REPORT of the ATTENDANCE, BEHAVIOUR, &c. of the GOVERNOR and COMPANY'S WORKMEN'S CHILDREN attending _____ Week-day School for the Half Year ending _____ 185 .

Children's Names.	Parent or Guardian.	Residence.	Number of Days' Attendance during the Half Year ending 185 .							Absence during the Half Year.		Character.						
			January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	Total Attendance during the Half Year.	Lawful.	Unlawful.	Ability.	Industry.	Progress.	Behaviour.			

Other side.

APPENDIX K.—cont.

III.

A List of Boys applying for Places in (at) the GOVERNOR and COMPANY'S MINES (or Washing) in the District.

VOL. II.

Names of Boys.	Places of Residences.	Name of Parent or Guardian.		Name of deceased Father of Orphan's or Widow's Sons.		Age, March 18		Years served.		General Character.			Weekly School Character.			Sunday School Character.	Remarks.	Where and with whom placed.	
		Company's Workmen.	Not Company's Workmen.	Company's Workmen.	Not Company's Workmen.	Months.	Years.	At Washing.	At other work.	Skill.	Industry.	Behaviour.	Ability.	Industry.	Progress.				Behaviour.

C C

This List lies in the Governor's office at Middleton, and the boys are drafted into the works and mines according to character as marked by the accumulation of proficiency marks under these heads. Those marked A are first drafted, B second, C third, and so on.
 N.B.—In giving employment to those on this List the orphan, when of proper character, is taken into the works first, the widow's son next, and the sons of workmen next in the order of the parent's length of servitude.

APPENDIX L.

GOVERNOR and COMPANY'S MIDDLETON in TEESDALE SUNDAY SCHOOL.

185 .

Teacher, _____

At School :

Morning |
Afternoon |

MARKS OF ATTENDANCE.

At Places of Worship, once -|
Do. do. twice -|

Class of	Journal of Attendance at School and Place of Worship.						Journal of relative Conduct and Proficiency in the Class.								
	January.		February.		March.		January.			February.			March.		
1															
2															
3															
4															
5															
6															
7															
8															
9															
10															
11															
12															

APPENDIX M.

From the following gentlemen evidence has been received in writing in the form of answers to the questions issued by the Commissioners.

N.B.—The Arabic numeral preceding each answer corresponds to that which precedes each gentleman's name in this list.

1. Rev. JOHN CUNDILL, B.D., Incumbent of St. Margaret's, Durham.
2. Rev. J. G. CROMWELL, Principal of the Diocesan Training School, Durham.
3. Rev. J. TODD, Vicar, Shincliffe, Durham.
4. Rev. W. HICK, B.D., Incumbent of Byer's Green.
5. Rev. ALAN GREENWELL, Chaplain, County Gaol, Durham.
6. Rev. G. E. GREEN, Incumbent, St. Andrew's, Auckland.
7. Rev. R. BROWN, Wesleyan Minister, Bishop Auckland.
8. Rev. G. T. FOX, Incumbent, St. Nicholas, Durham.
9. Mr. JOSEPH LAWSON, Master, St. Oswald's National School, Durham.
10. Colonel STOBART, Coalowner, Etherly, Bishop Auckland.
11. THOMAS SOPWITH, Esq., Chief Agent of the W. B. Lead Mines.
12. THOMAS CRAWFORD, Esq., Head Viewler for the Earl of Durham.
13. WILLIAM HENDERSON, Esq., Manufacturer, Durham.
14. Mr. RICHARD BAILEY, Teacher and Village Stationer, Wil-
lington.

I.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF EDUCATION.

What have been your opportunities of acquiring experience respecting popular education and elementary instruction?—To what districts does your experience apply?

1. The experience of a parish priest of a populous parish, of 16 years' standing. About 18 years ago I inspected schools for the National Society in the diocese of Durham; and I was for several years Principal of the Durham Diocesan Training School. For many years I have also regularly attended the quarterly meetings of the Durham Diocesan Board of Education; and I have also been on the committee of the Bluecoat School, in Durham, which has been a central school (see Note A.) for the whole of the city of Durham.

Principally to the city of Durham and its immediate neighbourhood; partly also to the diocese of Durham.

2. I have been for nine years and a half engaged as vice-principal and (now) principal of the Durham Training School for Masters.

I have visited schools in almost all parts of the British islands. Most frequently have I seen schools in the manufacturing districts of Cheshire and Lancashire, as well as the mining districts of Durham.

I am, moreover, acquainted with schools in France, Belgium, and Prussia.

3. The ordinary opportunities of a clergyman for upwards of 30 years, in the parish of Shincliffe, in the county and diocese of Durham.

4. Having been a parish priest in the parish of St. Andrew, Auckland, for 20 years. I also having made many inquiries when meeting clergy in other places, as I do very frequently, as organizing secretary for the Propagation of the Gospel Society.

I refer in these answers more particularly to pitmen and those connected with them in labour.

5. I have been more than 10 years, being above four years rector of a rural manufacturing parish in Lancashire, and I have been chaplain to the Durham County Gaol for the same time. Both situations have afforded me many opportunities of judging of the benefit and the need of popular education and elementary instruction.

6. I have been for 10 years incumbent of the parish of St. Andrew, Auckland, a large parish, which contains a variety of *industrial poor*, though they are chiefly of the mining class.

7. For upwards of 24 years I have been actively engaged in the Wesleyan Methodist ministry, in Hertfordshire, Kent, Lancashire, Yorkshire, and for very nearly seven years of the 24 (five of them the last past years) in the county of Durham and on the north bank of the Tyne. During these years I have lived in the closest intimacy and friendship with pitmen and all grades of officials employed in collieries. My acquaintance has not in any extended scale reached to the coal-owners or the lessees of collieries, but I have been intimate with a few of this class. I have been in the confidence of pitmen in a very large number of collieries, under almost all circumstances. My knowledge embraces their private life, their daily habits, their prejudices, their great excellencies—their infirmities, their vices. My wont has been to observe them when at work underground; to note even their style of living, in respect of diet, sleep, &c. And this I have done from a fixed determination to do my part in elevating and blessing so large and important a class of my fellow-men. Of course I have seen them in prosperity and trouble, in sickness, and when suffering from accidents; moreover, I lived among the north-country pitmen all through the last great and dread pit strike of 1853.

My remarks in this paper will refer to the coal miners of Northumberland and Durham, including some results of observations made, during the last 18 months, upon the state of two large iron works, Witton Park and Tudhoe.

8. A general acquaintance with the social and religious condition of the country, and as having been connected with two principal parishes in the city of Durham during 10 years past.

9. (a) I have been actively engaged in the work since 1848.

(b) As a trained teacher; having been, and having had, pupil-teachers.

(c) My duties bring me DIRECTLY in contact with all the training students, from whom I learned the state of their schools and neighbourhood.

(d) As a member of the Northern Association of Schoolmasters. We all meet periodically at some member's school.

(e) I have walked or travelled over the whole of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Durham, &c. &c., particularly the valleys of the Wear and Tees.

10. A residence of 30 years amongst the classes here alluded to, in the coal mining district of Bishop Auckland; also as an owner of coal mines in the northern part of this county.

11. By consultation with many active and experienced friends of advanced education. By frequent travelling, and observation of schools and of mining population in different districts, and my experience, applies more especially to the *lead mine districts in Northumberland and Durham.*

12. From being viewer at the Earl of Durham's collieries, at Little-town, near Durham; and also as Chairman of Guardians of Durham Union.

14. I have had above 20 years' experience as a teacher; 18 years in the most densely-populated colliery districts in the county of Durham, viz., Hetton-le-Hole and Durham Union.

1. Generally speaking, have the poor people in the district with which you are acquainted received elementary instruction?—If they have, have they forgotten, or do they still remember what they were taught?

1. (1.) Yes, with the exception of pitmen, who are continually moving from place to place, and are many of them imperfectly instructed.. (See Note A.) To some extent, also, the girls have not been taught plain work.

(2.) If by elementary instruction is meant reading, writing, and arithmetic, they still remember what they were taught.

2. No.

3. All have had an opportunity of receiving, and with some exceptions have embraced it. It is impossible to state with any degree of accuracy how far they have forgotten or remembered, &c.

4. As a class, *no.* At the same time many of the poor have received elementary instruction, but forgotten it, except in cases where there was a necessity for keeping it up. I mean, where the boy or girl went to trade, or to any situation requiring it to be kept up. Still there is a difference in moral tone and bearing, though the reading, &c. is forgotten.

5. The operatives of Lancashire generally remembered the little they had learnt; I cannot say as much for the Durham pitmen; but in each case the foundation was wretchedly imperfect.

6. I think generally the poor in this parish have received elementary instruction, but, owing to the very early removal of children from school, very many forget what they have been taught.

7. Generally speaking they have been taught only in Sunday schools, until a comparatively recent period.

They remember and profit by what they have been taught to a degree that none could have anticipated, and which is amazing to us who live in the midst of this population and witness the practical results of Sunday schools.

8. A considerable portion of the children receive elementary education, but beyond the power to read, seldom perhaps exercised, the mental development is very limited.

9. A great majority of the *poor* have not. The few who have remember a good portion of the *little* which they *did* receive.

10. Generally speaking they have received elementary instruction, but, with a few exceptions, it is practically forgotten.

11. Generally speaking *they have.*

12. They have not, only about one third; in many instances forgotten.

13. Memorandum of 107 young persons working in the factory of Messrs. Henderson and Co. in 1857.

	Can neither read nor write.	Can read only.	Can read and write.
Who have resided in Durham since childhood.	33	15	30
Who have come to Durham since 10 years of age.	16	4	9
	49	19	39
	19		
	39		
	107		

2 If they have not received elementary instruction, does this arise from a failure in the supply or in the demand for education?

1. See above. On the whole I am of opinion that the demand does not equal the supply.

2. From both causes.

3. The supply has been equal to the demand as far as was ever required at a small weekly payment.

4. I should say from failure in "demand," because where there is a school not full of pupils, I consider it fails in demand.

5. Both, in Durham, however, the last is more wanting than the first.

6. The not having received instruction arises, I think, more from a failure in the demand than the supply.

7. From a failure in the supply.

8. I have not statistics correctly to answer this question, but believe there is a tolerable supply of means, and when children are not sent to school it is generally the indifference or extreme poverty of the parents which causes it.

9. Perhaps equally from both. The number of schools were few and badly managed; and the poor were indifferent whether they received instruction or not.

10. If the demand had been greater, the supply would have been better.

12. The supply is increased, and at present sufficient.

3. If from a failure in the supply, are there too few schools or too few teachers? State any facts within your own knowledge in illustration of the want of which you complain.

1. If the demand were as general as it ought to be, more schools would be required; and, as it is, I think existing schools are not in many cases sufficiently supplied with teachers.

2. Public schools too few.

E. g. In one parish in this city containing 5,000 inhabitants, there is only a ragged school for about 60, and a mixed school for about 80

children. In another parish with 2,500 inhabitants there has been till this year no public school.

3. If all the children in the parish were sent to the schools in existence, or if those that are sent were to continue for a longer period, or even if they were more regular in their attendance, then the schoolrooms would not be sufficient.

4. If any failure in supply, it arises from too few teachers, especially in places where no Government grant is available.

5. Want of good schools.

6. This parish is, I should say, well supplied with schools for elementary instruction.

7. The number of the day schools is sadly small in comparison with the necessities of the population. Many of them have too few teachers.

I have never known any school in this district fail for want of scholars. Well-conducted and inefficient schools alike are always crowded, with the exception of an occasional endowed school, in which an unworthy teacher is able to keep his stipend, however he may act.

The above facts are of the more value as I have known of and been officially connected with schools which have failed for want of management or funds, but I have not known of any failures in public or private schools for want of scholars.

6. The great want used to be "*qualified teachers.*" Since 1849 "*trained teachers*" have begun to labour in this district. *Many* schools have been built, and the *demand* for teachers is increasing. The demands exceed (and will for some years exceed) the supply. The population increases at the rate of 28 per cent. in the coal-mining district lying to the north of a line drawn from Hartlepool to Bishop Auckland, and from thence to Stanhope in Weardale. There is no school for poor of Old Hartlepool worthy of the name. The collieries are the worst off. *Twice* as many teachers as at present would not be too many.

10. The room provided in existing schools has not been all used. The teachers are sufficient in number for the present demand, but they fail in qualification for their work.

11. Formerly, 10 years ago and more, too few schools and too few teachers. These and *distance* operated as hindrances rather than as total preventives.

12. Generally sufficient schools, but masters in some cases require assistance, where one master has 100 scholars.

12. In Durham education has been too centralized, it is now being made more parochial, and, by being brought nearer the residences of the poor, will materially increase the attendance at schools.

4. If from a failure in the demand, is the cause of that failure a want of will or a want of power on the part of the parents to procure education for their children? And is it usually a total failure in not sending children to school at all, or a partial one in not keeping them there long enough?

1. (1.) The cause is more want of will than of power.

(2.) In some cases they do not send them at all, but much more generally they do not keep them long enough at school.

2. Want of will in many cases. Children not kept at school long enough; often removed before 10 years old.

3. (1.) Any failure in the demand is very rarely owing to the want of power on the part of the parents in this district, but very often to the want of will.

(2.) Not usually a total failure, but a partial one, in not keeping them long enough, or rather in not sending them *regularly*, when nominally there.

4. From want of *will*, though there are many cases of want of power as well, arising from extravagant habits, gambling, &c. of the parents.

Usually I should say not sending them at all, but not keeping them long enough is a crying evil.

5. Want of will. Children are not kept long enough at school, and when there, parents do not enforce regular attendance. Out of 2,739 persons committed to the gaol in 1858, 1,850 had not been at school more than three years, and of these 1,141 not at all.

6. The failure in demand is owing more to a want of will than of power, for the education is offered on very low terms, such as the working poor are generally able to accept.

7. I have only to remark that the demand for education is interspersed with, and, speaking on the great scale, almost stopped (by the inducements held out to the parents to send their boys to work) at the age at which boys can legally be employed in pits, or become strong enough to go to the iron works.

8. I believe very few children are wholly without school education, but many get a scrambling, irregular, and extremely defective education, and are taken away at a very early age to earn wages.

9. If the *poor* desired it, the supply would be greater. Those who are uneducated set no value upon education. They take their children away too soon. The average amount of education which a child receives from his infancy to going to work is little over *two* years. In the best National schools the average is seldom more than 10 or 11 years. *Irregular attendance is still a greater fault than early removal.* The most frivolous excuses are given for absence.

10. The parents believe it is want of *power*, but generally it really resolves itself into a want of *will*.

The failure is partial, in not "keeping the children at school a sufficient length of time."

11. A fair attention on the part of parents to the opportunities afforded, although children are often removed *too early*.

12. Little failure in demand; where it is, it arises from a want of will in parents. Some children are much neglected by their parents in not sending them to school at all.

5. If it is want of will, what is the cause of that want?

1. Carelessness about education, and a selfish wish to spend their wages on themselves, and to make profit by their children's earnings.

2. Incapacity of parents to value education, and desire to make the children earn wages as soon as possible.

The people in this district are highly paid for their labour. Poverty is not the cause why children are removed so early.

3. Indifference about education in some; in others ignorance of the advantages of education, or of the time really necessary for acquiring a good one.

4. The parents themselves have never felt much the necessity of education in their own cases, being able to procure work without it, and not able to get better work or more with it. I do not think that pitowners generally recognize as worth more than others, the educated pitmen to the non-educated—in fact the uneducated has fewer scruples, and therefore suits the overmen better as procuring more coal. If their children can get taught without trouble they would suffer it, but

as they see no present advantage in learning, and much in procuring money for the family, therefore they slight *school for work*.

5. The wages which their children are able to earn. In the pit districts of Durham, for instance, a very puny boy can earn sufficient to maintain himself.

6. The parents are induced by the large demand to send their children very early to work, being anxious to gain so soon as possible by their labour, so that a very limited time is thought by many of them sufficient for the education of their children.

10. The parents themselves not being educated are generally *extravagant*, (in eating, drinking, &c.,) and from this extravagance lose the power; and a continuation of this state of things causes them to lose the *will*, or prevents them from entertaining the idea of educating their children; and recently, since "Penny Savings' Banks" have been adopted, the want of will in many cases is evinced, if not caused, by the parents saving money and leaving their children uneducated.

11. Not much want of will, except as regards *too early removal*.

12. Ignorance, selfishness, and indolence.

6. Do parents neglect to educate their children on the ground that the education within their reach is not adapted to their wants? And, if so, are they right or wrong in that opinion, and what is the proof that they are right or wrong?

1. No; I have heard of some instances of this kind, but on the whole I should answer the question decidedly in the negative.

2. I have never heard of any such objection from any parent.

3. Many may neglect from not knowing what education really is; some from prejudice against the present system of pupil-teachers, &c. because they were not so taught themselves.

4. No; except as I have said in Answer "5." I certainly myself see no advantage to a pitman (as a pitman) learning reading, writing, and arithmetic—what would render him more moral and a better servant would be education strictly so called—"moral training." This they do not mind.

5. Certainly not. I have *never* found any of these reasons weigh with the poor, or come at all under consideration.

6. I do not think that many parents neglect the education of their children on this ground.

7. Generally speaking, parents avail themselves of whatever means of education they have within their reach up to the age referred to in my answer to Question 4.

8. I think not.

9. No, I never heard it mentioned. I think the education given is well adapted to their wants.

10. This is not the reason generally. At the same time they have a standard, which has reference more to *seeing* something clever in their copy and ciphering books than to the improved behaviour and orderly habits induced by careful training.

11. Not much neglect generally.

12. The education is quite sufficient. The majority send their children to school; the minority, who do not, are wrong.

7. Do they neglect it on the ground of the incompetence of the teacher?

1. No.

2. No.

3. This feeling may have some effect; but it can arise only from real ignorance, not from truth, when the master, as here, has a certificate and is under Government inspection.

4. No.

5. No. I have *never* found any of these reasons weigh with the poor or come at all under their consideration.

6. I am of opinion that they do not.

7. As a rule, *no*. The exceptions are very rare. Even when the parents are strictly sober religious people they send their children to a drunken schoolmaster rather than let them go entirely untaught.

8. I think not.

9. Very rarely.

10. An incompetent teacher always causes less or more neglect.

11. No; any teacher, however inferior, preferred to none.

12. The neglect is occasionally ascribed to this cause.

8. Do they neglect it on the ground of difference in religious belief from the managers of schools within their reach?

1. By no means.

2. I have been the manager of schools for 400 children for 10 years, and I have never heard a whisper about the religious question.

3. There have been in this school the children of Romanists and various Dissenters, but no objection was ever made to me on this ground.

4. Not the day schools. Sunday schools Dissenters would not attend if the children had to go to church. I speak of the *class* of Dissenters: there are some who would not object.

5. No; I have *never* found any of these reasons weigh with the poor, or come at all under their consideration.

6. I have not found in my experience more than a few individual cases where the education provided has been neglected on this ground.

7. No; excepting always the case of Protestant and Papist, and *vice versa*.

8. No.

9. No; they think it sufficient if they send it to a *Sunday school* of their own persuasion.

10. No.

11. Not much neglect on this ground, even when a large body of Dissenters had only a Church school to send their children to.

12. Do not know any instance.

9. Do they neglect it on the ground that they cannot afford to forego wages earned by their children?

1. Yes, to a very great extent. This operates most lamentably in causing children to be too soon removed from school.

2. Frequently; but I do not admit the validity of the excuse in many cases.

3. Many do, particularly when their children are of age to go to the pit to work.

4. Sometimes; but then their excuse cannot apply to children under 10 years, the legal age for going down the pit. Sometimes there are instances in which they cannot afford.

5. I have not heard them state this openly.

6. Some instances there are where the wages earned by the children are really necessary to the parents, but I fear many more who

could forego them value the wages above the education of the children.

7. Only in the case of a dissipated father or mother, and then not always.

8. Sometimes.

9. Practically, they do.

10. Yes.

11. To a certain degree, but not greatly. This operates especially in hard times.

12. In few instances can this be assigned.

13. With many this is really a good reason, but with the majority it is an excuse given to cover the improper conduct of the parents in drunkenness, idleness, &c.

10. (1.) If unwillingness to lose wages is the cause, what is the value of the labour of children under 15 in the district with which you are acquainted? (2.) Are there any, and what, special circumstances in the relations between employers and labourers which affect the attendance of children at school? (3.) Does female labour prevail, and does this affect the education of girls?

1. (1.) Boys in the pit districts earn from 1s. to 1s. 6d. a day.

(2.) None that I know of.

(3.) No.

2. (1.) Wages of lads under 15, perhaps 10s. or 12s. a week.

(2.) Pitowners want lads down the pits at an early age.

(3.) There is not much female labour, except in a carpet factory.

3. (1.) The wages at the colliery of boys from 10 to 12 years of age are from 10d. to 15d., and as they approach 15 years of age they are from 1s. 6d. to 2s. a day.

(2.) The employers can command their labour when required. They also pay one half of the weekly pence for the children of the people employed at the colliery.

(3.) Female labour does not prevail, except in agriculture; it scarcely affects the education of girls.

4. (1.) A boy earns from 10d. a day to 18d.

(2.) There is often a scarcity of boys to do the work down and about the pit, and therefore those above 10 years of age are usually taken to work; but I have heard *owners* and *men* say, that if the age were restricted to 12 years they might manage.

(3.) No female labour; girls kept at home to do housework.

5. (1.) In the neighbourhood of Durham from 6s. to 20s. per week.

(3.) In Durham female labour does not prevail.

6. Boys at the pit, from 10 to 15, will, I believe, earn wages beginning from 9d. or 10d. a day, and going on to 1s. 6d., or even 2s.

(3.) Female labour does not prevail much in this district.

7. (1.) The former part will be answered more satisfactorily by practical men than by me.

(2.) There are no special circumstances affecting education in this district, except those mentioned under No. 4, unless it be that to an industrious competent lad promotion to the highest and most lucrative posts in the collieries and ironworks is open. This last consideration operates extensively upon the better class of parents and lads. It leads to the use of various means of improving the education of young men by private instruction and evening schools; but I do not observe

that it keeps the boys even of the most considerate parents at school when they are old enough to work.

(3.) Female idleness, and not female labour, prevails here.

9. (1.) From 8 to 10 years of age (above ground) from 4s. to 6s. per week; (under ground) boys between 10 and 12 years of age, from 6s. to 8s. per week; from 12 to 14 years, 8s. to 11s. per week. Boys 14 and 15 years get from 10s. to 16s. per week.

(2.) Lately, coalowners have built schools, and requested their young men to attend the evening classes. Parents, to please their employers, often send unemployed children to school.

(3.) Female labour does not prevail.

10. (1.) From the age of 10 to 15 the wages are from 1s. 4d. to 1s. 6d., 1s. 8d., 1s. 10d., 2s., and up to 2s. 6d. per day.

(2.) When they attend school there is no circumstance in this relation which affects the attendance, but the general demand for the labour of young boys is a great temptation to the parents for their early removal from school.

(3.) Female labour does not prevail.

11. (1.) From 6d. to 1s. per diem; say 10d. as an average.

(2.) The sole employer here is W. B. Beaumont, Esq., M.P.; and he anxiously desires, but does not compel, attendance.

(3.) *No girls are employed in works here.*

12. (1.) Boys from 10 to 15 years of age earn from 4s. to 9s. per week.

(2.) None.

(3.) So little that its effect ought not to be perceptible.

13. (1.) The wages of those under 15 may be taken as from 2s. to 3s. 6d. per week.

(3.) Female labour does not prevail here; boys are more needed. Henderson and Co. employ 58 boys and 49 girls.

11. How is the unwillingness of parents to send their children to school affected—

- (a) By prizes or certificates for attendance?
- (b) By the quality of the instruction given?
- (c) By the character of the school and schoolmaster?
- (d) By the particular system of school management?
- (e) By the demand of school pence?
- (f) By instruction given gratuitously?
- (g) By experience of the advantages of education in obtaining employment, or otherwise?

1. (a) So far as they have been tried, they seem to decrease the unwillingness.

(b) Prefer instruction well given; makes parents more willing.

(c) This operates well, though not so much as it ought.

(d) I do not think this produces much effect.

(e) My belief is, that generally the school pence are *too low*. What costs little parents value but little. Hence carelessness about sending children, and want of regularity and punctuality when they are there. Children are often sent to private schools here. The charge is much higher than, and the instruction very inferior to, that of public schools.

(f) I do not think this produces much good effect, except, perhaps, where it is given as a prize.

(g) This has some good effect, but by no means what it ought to have.

2. (a) Very slightly.

(b) Ditto.

(c) Rather more.

(d) Not much, if at all.

(e) Very little.

(f) Attendance rather worse when gratuitous.

(g) Education of no value in gaining employment in a pit.

3. (a) The children of those who are unwilling to send them either not at all, or for a short time, never gain certificates, and therefore are never affected by the expectation.

(b), (c), (d). Parents may be affected, through ignorance or prejudice, against (b), (c), (d), but without any just or sufficient reason.

(e), (f), (g). School pence in some cases may increase this unwillingness, instruction gratuitously may diminish it, but the advantages of education are really appreciated by those only who desire them.

4. (a) By prizes, because children have so much their own way that they will not come to school unless they like it.

(b) If they see progress—a good copy, reading, and spelling—they are then ready to send them.

(c) Not much.

(d) Not now; at first they did not like pupil-teachers or monitors. I think they now see the good.

(e) This does not influence them, if it is not too high; say from 2*d.* to 3*d.* per week.

(f) No.

(g) I do not think they get employment any better for being educated. I think this would be one grand stimulus to the parents, if employers would see that the children could read and write.

5. *Very little.* These inducements are too trifling to counterbalance the value of money gained by labour.

6. (a) Prizes, I think, induce regularity of attendance.

(b) I have generally found that the good quality of the instruction given influences the parents to send their children to school.

(c) *Certainly* the characters both of the school and schoolmaster have had to do with the attendance of the children.

(d) I have had no experience of any other than than the National system of school management.

(e) With the exception of a few cases of poverty or sickness, I have not found that the payment of school fees has operated against the attendance of the children at school.

(f) One evil of gratuitous instruction is, that the parents are less careful to see to their children attending regularly; whereas, having paid, they are anxious to have their money's worth.

(g) I think that parents here are beginning to find the advantages of education in getting their children forward in life.

7. I think all the causes specified, except that under (f), operate powerfully and beneficially. Gratuitous instruction debases the families receiving it, except in the case of the children of poor widows. It is, moreover, generally despised, or at least undervalued. This remark only belongs to day-schools. It would be utterly false if applied to Sunday schools.

9. (a) A good effect upon regular attenders. Upon irregular ones the good effect is only for a short time.

(b) Very little, I am afraid.

(c) A good teacher, by visiting and persuasion, &c., improves the "attendance."

(d) They seldom inquire how it is managed.

(e) and (f). The higher the fees (generally) the better the attendance. *Cheap* schools are lightly esteemed. If a child be detained at home on *Monday*, probably it will not be at school the remainder of the week.

(g) The scheme is *rarely* tried, the demand for labour being so great. From my own school, I think the effect is decidedly *good*.

10. (a) These improve the attendance, but they are of little consequence.

(b) This affects the attendance at school greatly.

(c) The parents generally look to a teacher who brings the children rapidly forward.

(d) On this subject there are great prejudices. The monitorial system, for instance, is not popular.

(e) All other things being right, this does not stand in the way, except in the case of very large families.

(f) Instruction given gratuitously is not at all valued.

(g) This operates very strongly to induce parents to educate their children.

11. Very little unwillingness.

(a) These have an excellent effect in promoting regularity.

(c) (d) Many parents are unable to form an enlightened judgment on these.

(e) No; many children sent to inferior schools at a higher price than improved schools.

(f) This operates injuriously, for they *value at nothing* what they pay *nothing for*.

(g) Yes.

12. (a) False stimulants, and not adopted.

(b) More willing for good instruction.

(c) Considerably by the character of master.

(d) Not much inquired into where master is satisfactory.

(e) The present scale of school pence not objected to.

(f) Never thought of except by widows, who, in many instances, have the opportunity afforded them to have their children educated gratuitously.

(g) The majority do not attach sufficient importance to this advantage.

12. (1.) If parents are unable to send their children to school, what prevents them? (2.) If poverty prevents them, how does it operate? (3.) What is the evidence that they are really unable, and not merely indifferent on the subject?

1. (1.) Where parents are unable, it arises partly from keeping the elder children at home to look after the younger, and partly from poverty.

(2.) They have not the means of paying for their children.

(3.) As answered above, Question 4. I think the inability bears a very small proportion to the indifference.

2. (a) Parents are not often unable.

(b) Poverty is the exception.

(c) I know of none.

3. Sometimes sickness or want of regular employment; sometimes poverty arising from indolence or idle or dissipated habits. The cause proved by the general amount of wages.

4. The girls prevented by their having to do home work. Sometimes there are cases of poverty, of course. As to the evidence of inability, I myself, on hearing that they plead poverty, go to the pit office, and learn their earnings; and I often find that it arises from dissipated living, and such like.

5. In general, I consider the education question among the labouring poor turns very much on the reason I have given—the *value* of their children's work.

6. Poverty, as a preventing cause, is rather the exception than the rule in this district.

7. This question (I think) can only be answered theoretically as to this district. The supply is so eagerly caught at, that if provision were made for all who can pay, I think the case of the really poor would be met by local exertion; all, in fact, except a portion of the children of parents kept by the parish, would most probably be provided for.

9. I think the want of the *will* is greater than the want of *means*. Poverty cannot prevent them; for there are plenty of rich people who would employ them, and still keep them at school.

10. In some cases it is poverty. The parents have domestic or other work to do which they cannot afford to pay for, and so the *time* of their children cannot be spared for education. In cases of extreme poverty they cannot afford to pay the school pence. There is evidence of this when the income is absolutely (under the most rigorous economy) less than the outlay of the family. These cases are very rare in the colliery districts; every man of ordinarily careful habits can afford to spare something for the education of his children.

11. Indifference operates more than poverty.

12. All able except widows, and this does not apply in all cases. See (f) above.

13. Is the supply of schools and teachers proportioned to the want of them, or are there too few in some, and what neighbourhoods, and too many in others; or how otherwise?

1. The supply of schools and teachers is pretty evenly dispersed.

2. I know of no locality in Durham where the schools are too numerous.

3. The supply of schools and teachers equal to the want, at the present rate of attendance; but not if the attendance were equal to the number of children, or if it were more regular.

4. Of course there may be places around where schools and teachers are too few; but, generally speaking, the labouring classes are, in the pit villages I know, fairly supplied. Except, perhaps, it might be well to establish *infant* schools, as, in my own parish, it would be well to have two.

6. I am of opinion that in this district there are no places with too many schools, but a great number with too few.

7. I know of no instance in which the supply even equals the demand, much less the want.

9. No! I know of *no* district where there are too many schools. I do know of many places without schools; *e.g.*, the parishes of St. Giles and St. Margaret, in Durham, and *many*, very many others. I know of many *villages* where the schools want re-organizing.

N.B.—Where there are both good schools and proper teachers, it requires the greatest labour to induce parents to send them. *Three* days per week is too often the attendance for the year; 500 days is often the

extreme amount of "schooling" a boy receives, and that scattered over a period of six years, viz., from four to ten years of age.

10. The proportion of schools and teachers is pretty fair as to number, but the quality of both is very unequal, some neighbourhoods being entirely without any *efficient* establishment.

11. In the districts referred to schools are pretty evenly distributed.

12. The supply of schools generally sufficient; the teachers more frequently require assistance.

13. Hitherto the supply of schools has been very deficient,—this is now under course of remedy; and the addition of a boys' school for St. Giles's parish, and a mixed school for the east end of Framwellgate, would perfect the supply for the whole of Durham.

II. GOVERNMENT AND FINANCE OF SCHOOLS.

1. Are you acquainted with the working of any, and what, systems of central aid and inspection, or of inspection alone?

1. I am acquainted with the Durham Diocesan School Society's system of aid.

2. I know something of the Government system.

3. With occasional aid from the National School Society in supplying books, &c., and with the system of Government inspection in working.

4. I am acquainted with none but Government inspection.

5. I have benefited in my several schools, both by aid and inspection; aid from various societies, as the National Society, Diocesan Education Society, as well as from the Committee of Council Inspection, by H.M. Inspector.

7. Practically, only with the Government aid and inspection of Wesleyan Methodist schools; and the aid and inspection provided by the Wesleyan Methodists for their own schools.

9. No. I have had more or less to do with the Government inspection since 1848, but with no other system.

10. I am not well acquainted with the various systems, none of my schools being so connected.

11. The only inspection I am intimately conversant with is that which I undertake in such schools as are immediately in the control or influence of W. B. Beaumont, Esq., M.P., owner and lessee of mines under my management.

14. With both; but more with central aid and inspection.

2. What in your opinion is the result of the variety of systems for these purposes now in operation?—Do they stimulate, or do they interfere with each other?

1. They stimulate.

2. I imagine they stimulate each other.

3. The National School aid and Government inspection have never interfered with each other, and both have been of great benefit.

4. They stimulate.

5. I am not able to give an opinion whether one system of inspection interferes with another, as we have only Government inspection in this district.

7. I do not clearly understand this question. (1.) If it mean—Does the arrangement by which the schools now existing are recognized by

the Committee of Council as belonging to particular religious bodies or educational societies, operate so as to stimulate the managers and teachers?—I reply, It does, and in the long run most favourably. (2.) If it mean—Does the Government system in each school act favourably upon the management of that school, in connexion with local and denominational arrangements and administrations?—I reply, the causes at present regulating the schools referred to work happily, and act and react upon each other beneficially. The withdrawal of the Government influence would be a great loss, and an evil to be deprecated. At the same time I think that both the aid and inspection of the schools by Government, if increased as to particular schools, would operate unhealthily, and tend to paralyze local effort, and to destroy the higher properties of the English character. In recording this sentiment, I wish it to be most distinctly understood not to assert or imply that the Government aid and inspection may not be administered more beneficially, both as to the extent of the aid, and to the number of schools assisted, and as to the character of the inspection in each school. I think both aid and inspection may be advantageously modified.

9. The result is very beneficial.

10. Undoubtedly the effect is to stimulate each other.

11. The influence of local inspection is great, when conducted by parties connected with the general business of the district.

14. Inspection generally stimulates, if carried properly out. Much depends on the experience of the teacher.

3. Does the prospect of assistance from the Committee of Council, or from a central society, or either, and which of them, tend to increase or to diminish local subscriptions and exertions?

1. To increase.

2. It undoubtedly increases local exertions, and by consequence local subscriptions.

3. The hope of aid from one or more of the central societies will, I believe, greatly tend to increase local subscriptions, especially when there is great difficulty in building or carrying on a school without such aid.

4. I should say that the prospect of help from the Committee of Council, or central societies, rather increases local subscriptions, because by it we have a prospect of really effecting an object, and so people more readily put their shoulders to the wheel.

6. I think to increase local exertions, for without such aid from other sources all exertions on the spot would be felt to be almost in vain.

7. Most certainly to increase.

9. I think Privy Council assistance tends to increase local subscriptions and exertions.

10. There is no doubt, to increase them.

11. I should say, it would tend to *increase* local exertions in this district.

13. Tends to increase. As treasurer for the Building Fund of the Female Training School, I have had some experience of this.

14. In some cases it has diminished, and in others increased. It greatly depends with what religious denomination it is connected.

4. Does the system of Government or other central inspection affect the efficiency of schools inspected, and how?

1. It affects on the whole favourably. It has its disadvantages; but the advantages preponderate.

2. It stimulates the teachers. A hope of praise, and dread of loss, both of repute and money.

3. It tends, as far as I have seen, to encourage a good master, as well as increase his exertions and his influence with the scholars.

4. Decidedly beneficial. Stimulates master and pupils; but more time should be given by inspectors for examination.

6. I think that inspection acts beneficially as a stimulus to managers, teachers, and children.

7. It acts as a constant supervision upon managers and teachers, and it has produced in both a determination to do their best. To some extent this result is disturbed, and, if there be not a remedy provided, will (I fear) be destroyed, through want of an appeal, both on the part of teachers, and when an inspector's report is felt to be erroneous or unjust.

9. Yes; they are better attended, better conducted, and more efficient.

10. Yes, undoubtedly, by stimulating both promoters and masters.

11. The yearly inspection by British and Foreign school Inspectors has only been during two years, and that incidentally. I should say a beneficial influence is exercised in some cases, and in others discouragement is given.

12. Where schools are inspected, the efficiency of the master or mistress is felt from their being of a better class.

13. Yes.

14. It stimulates both teachers and scholars, especially if there is any reward for industry.

5. Do any and which of the terms upon which the Government grant is made affect in practice the independent management of the schools assisted?

1. I think they have rather too much tendency to lead the managers to be guided by the views of the inspector of the district, without sufficient consideration of their wisdom, or the contrary.

2. The pupil-teacher grant precludes night schools, which are much needed in this locality.

3. The Government grant has never affected the management in this school.

4. In practice I never found the independent management of the schools affected.

6. I have not found the independent management of my school practically affected by the terms on which the Government grant is made.

7. I think the grant acts only as a healthy stimulus.

9. No. I have inquired of several teachers, who agree with me on this point, that we should manage our schools exactly as we do now if we were not inspected.

10. I do not know that it does in any instance.

14. Capitation, if it is a tax on the promoters or people who have no children; hence it is evident it will affect the management.

6. Have private-adventure schools declined, or otherwise, since the establishment of the Government system of grants?
 1. As far as I know they have not.
 2. Declined, most certainly.
 3. They have not been affected here.
 4. I should say they have declined, if anything, because the Government schools ought to be and generally are much better, and therefore more valued.
 6. I think this class of schools has rather declined since the establishment of the Government system of grants.
 7. I think they have slightly increased.
 9. Yes; numbers of examples can be given.
 10. In this neighbourhood private-adventure schools have not diminished, but it must be remembered the population has greatly increased.
 12. Yes; declined.
 14. Private schools have not so much declined from Government grants as from coalowners and other works establishing schools for their workmen.

7. It has been said that the terms of the Government grant, and particularly those which relate to the capitation grant, are such that it is useless to the promoters of schools in poor places. Is this so in your opinion, and on what facts is your opinion founded.

2. I cannot recal a case in point at this moment; but it is easy to see that in very poor localities the requisite amount of subscription cannot always be raised; and if the Government will not relax the rule in such cases these localities must remain unaided.

3. The capitation grants have been of great service in the school here, and especially in making improvements which would not otherwise have been made. They also afford a strong reason for enforcing regular attendance, which is of the utmost importance to success in teaching.

4. Under minute, April 2, 1853, it is required that the master or mistress must hold a certificate or the school cannot have benefit of the capitation grant. Now there are schools that cannot afford sufficient stipend to incline certificated masters to take them, as in one of my own. Therefore we cannot avail ourselves of the capitation grant; and I should think there are many places where the income of the school will not rise to the average on each scholar so as to enable the school to claim the grant.

6. There are, no doubt, some poor places where it is almost impossible to raise sufficient for the payment of a *duly* qualified teacher with a certificate of merit, and this excludes those schools from much of the benefit of Government aid.

7. I feel clear that it is as has been said on these subjects. The really poor children hardly can attend so as to obtain the capitation grant.

The grants in aid of buildings are not available practically for the poorest neighbourhoods in scattered populations, because parties who should become promoters of schools for such neighbourhoods will not undertake even small buildings, such as would accommodate a few children, unless the Government will inspect their schools, and examine and give certificates to and aid teachers adequate to the necessities of

such schools. And I hold that such cases may be fully met by providing a lower standard of teaching than is required in the schools at present inspected; and this moreover I feel sure may be done without interfering with or damaging or stopping the increase of schools such as now exist.

9. If I understand this question aright, there is not any cause for objection to the "terms of capitation."

In this district I believe the "objects", which Government have in view in making capitation grants are not attained, that is to say, the "attendance" is not improved according to the expense.

The direct effect in many cases has been to *abolish vacations altogether*. Of course if 176 days are made up in this way, the attendance cannot be said to be improved.

The *attendance* and its improvement depend upon two parties, the *scholar* and the *teacher*, and not on the *managers*. The scholar and the teacher are rarely affected directly or indirectly by "capitation," which is applied to the general fund of the school.

If a *fixed part* were given to the scholar, say one fifth, either in money or prizes, and also a *fixed part* in money to the teacher, the *attendance* would be very *much improved* (say 25 or 30 per cent.), the rest of the money might be given to the general fund of the school.

10. I am not able to speak to this from my own opinion.

11. My experience of this is small. Only one school here received capitation, and I do not think it was *useful* in any degree commensurate with the amount given.

8. (1.) What is, generally speaking, the financial condition of the schools with which you are acquainted? (2.) Are they self-supporting, in debt, or supported by subscriptions? (3.) Where the resident population is principally poor, do non-resident proprietors usually subscribe? (4.) If not, who does? (5.) How does the payment of school fees operate? (6.) Is it popular with parents? (7.) Does it deprive those who are very poor of the use of the schools, and bring in children of a richer class?

1. (1.) Generally speaking it is not good.

(2.) Supported by subscriptions.

(3.) By no means so much as they ought to do.

(4.) The deficiency is in very many cases made up by the clergymen of the respective parishes.

(5), (6), (7). See answers to I., (4), (5), (9), (11) (c): on the whole school fees operate well, and ought to be fixed higher than they ordinarily are, with discretionary power of reduction in the case of very poor people.

2. Generally supported by subscriptions.

Non-resident proprietors usually subscribe through an agent, who gives the merest pittance. Most unhappily many coal proprietors are non-resident. The clergyman is always expected to support the school, and he almost always does in *proportion to his pecuniary means* twice as much as any other person.

The payment of school fees does not deter scholars. Parents undervalue a very cheap or gratuitous education. I could produce several proofs of this assertion.

Our schools certainly do not contain many of the class above the poorest. The "richer class" will not permit their children to associate with the very lowest class, nor is this surprising.

3. The two schools under my superintendence are supported partly by fees or weekly pence (about $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ or $3d.$ each), and partly by subscriptions principally from the Dean and Chapter of Durham, and from a few residing in the parish. There is no debt, but a greater income would be of advantage to the school. School fees can never be popular with the poor, but if kept low will not be complained of. In that case they will not bring in the children of a richer class, and deprive very few, if any, of the use of the school, for in extreme cases assistance will be afforded if properly sought for.

4. I should say that no parish school in this district is self-supporting, but they are supported by subscriptions to about one third of the cost annually. Non-resident proprietors generally subscribe. The pit-owners generally subscribe, though I should say not in proportion to the number of their men that have the benefit of school. I do not think that the payment of school fees does any harm—in fact, *too low* a fee makes the people not value the education; it generally ought not to be more than $3d.$, and not a graduated scale except for three or more children from one house.

6. I do not know much about the support of other schools than those in my own parish, but I believe that in most cases the clergyman is a large subscriber. The payment of school fees does not in my opinion keep many children away; and the very poor are often assisted in the schooling of their children, or are allowed to send them free.

7. All the schools I have been acquainted with have been kept up principally (in most cases exclusively) by religious bodies as a religious duty. I have not known any school self-supporting for any length of time. The question of school fees is answered under No. 11, Paper I.

8. The two Durham Infant Schools for which I am treasurer are supported by subscriptions exclusively, but they are barely adequate to the expenditure. There is no complaint on score of the charge of $1d.$ a week.

9. Church and National schools generally, with the Government assistance, keep pace with the expenses; though I have heard the complaint "*want of funds.*" Dissenting schools under Government are often short of money. All require private or public subscriptions, except where $6d.$ per week is paid. Non-resident proprietors do assist. Parents often erroneously value instruction given by the *pence* paid. Those who can afford it prefer a school with *high* fees. Hence we find in towns an *upper* and a *lower* school, with middle class and *poor* children, and yet alike in every respect except *fees*.

The very poor are not deprived of means, because there are in all schools a number of "*free scholars.*"

10. They are not entirely self-supporting—they are not in debt,—they are supported by private subscriptions. The coalowners and ironmasters generally subscribe. The parents do not object to school fees. The payment of school fees does not deprive the poor of the use of the schools, this class are considered first and attended to before the children of a richer class are received.

11. Good; but that is owing to Mr. Beaumont's great liberality in assisting the people in building schools and paying good teachers.

None self-supporting.

None in debt.

Nearly all the population are poor. Children pay $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ and $1d.$; $3d.$ would be better per week. The parents would (after a little grumbling at the change) prefer the advantages which would ensue.

Here I take occasion to show that in speaking of debt, all children in the schools here (Mr. Beaumont's) pay *monthly in advance*.

No remission or even delay is on any account permitted; this works so well that children cry for sincere regret if they accidentally come without their sixpence on pay-day.

12. Some few are self-supporting; generally the coalowners contribute largely, in some cases assisted by subscriptions from the more wealthy proprietors of property in the locality. School fees are little consideration.

14. Some are supported by weekly pence from the parents of the children; others from endowments and subscribers, resident and non-resident.

School fees stimulate the parents to keep their children more regularly at school. If they go free it is considered no value by many. I cannot say it is unpopular with parents who have a desire to have their children taught; nor does it deprive the very poor, as they can always find by one source or other if they have a desire to have their children educated.

III.—EFFICIENCY OF SCHOOLS AND SCHOOLMASTERS.

1. What is your experience as to the comparative efficiency of—

- (a) Public and private schools?
- (b) Endowed and unendowed schools?
- (c) Inspected and uninspected schools?

1. Public schools are more efficient—very much more.

Unendowed schools are more efficient than endowed.

Inspected schools are more efficient than uninspected.

2. (a) I know little about private schools; but that little is not favourable to their repute.

(b) No means of judging.

(c) Inspected schools are much more efficient than uninspected ones.

3. I have superintended both kinds in (a), (b), and (c), at least when a fixed salary has supplied the place of an endowment; and I think public, endowed, and inspected have in ordinary cases a decided advantage over the others.

4. (a) Public schools decidedly superior, except for teaching very young children.

(c) Inspection is certainly most valuable.

6. (a) Public schools have, so far as my experience goes, great advantages over private schools in being better supplied with apparatus for teaching.

(b) Small endowments I think do not tend to the greater efficiency of the school, because they do not compensate for the loss of Government grants which they involve.

(c) Inspected schools are in my opinion more efficient than the uninspected.

7. I answer this inquiry only in reference to popular education and elementary instruction as defined above.

(a) Public schools incomparably superior.

(b) Unendowed schools are superior to endowed schools in general. Sometimes a small endowment entirely under the control of a managing committee does no harm. In all cases in which it goes directly to the teacher it is a great evil.

(c) Inspected schools without doubt.

9. (a) Public schools are better in every respect than private schools.

(b) There are good and bad endowed schools, and likewise good and bad unendowed schools. But the latter requiring more exertion for their support, are frequently better.

(c) Inspected schools are, as a rule, *better*. But there are many trained masters in schools not under inspection. These schools are conducted as if under inspection, and therefore are in most respects as *good* as the former.

10. (a) Public schools are the most efficient.

(b) Endowed schools with careful management have the advantage.

(c) Inspected schools are, without doubt, the most efficient.

11. (a) Public schools more efficient than private generally.

(b) Endowed schools to be preferred.

(c) Depends on the nature and extent of inspection. Yearly inspection of little use as compared with local and frequent inspection.

12. (a) So few public schools, an opinion cannot be given.

(b) None endowed so far as I know.

(c) Very little inspection, but where it is, of advantage.

2. What is your experience as to (a) evening schools, (b) industrial schools, (c) half-time systems, as means of keeping up what has been learned at ordinary schools, or prolonging attendance there?

2. (a) My experience is limited, that is, I know few evening schools; but my opinion is that they are much needed. I know they are popular and useful.

3. Evening schools are attended more frequently to make up the want of learning than to keep up what has been already acquired, although this is sometimes the object.

4. Evening schools cannot be carried on except by masters specially for such schools, and I have seen great good derived by young men who have attended them. But for pit-boys (I have tried) they do not suit; the children are not fit for it after 12 hours down the pit.

5. (a) Evening schools are valuable and appreciated.

(c) *The half-time system I feel confident will be the great means by which general education will be obtained.*

6. Evening schools have done something in my parish towards this object; but not so much as I had hoped for.

Of industrial schools and half-time systems I have no experience.

7. (a) I find in this neighbourhood that almost all the workmen who have risen to positions of responsibility and emolument in the great industrial establishments (both iron and coal), as also many of the shopkeepers, have been greatly assisted by evening schools.

(b) (c) No experience.

9. (a) Evening schools are attended only by those whose education has been neglected in boyhood.

(b.) (c) Not sufficient information.

10. (a) Evening schools are a great help to keeping up what has been learned; but I have not much experience in them, the working hours of the mining population not allowing them to take full advantage of such help.

(b) (c) I have no experience of these in this locality.

11. (a) Evening schools of great use; and *worthy of very great attention and encouragement*. I would urge this very strongly.

12. Evening schools are generally attended by a few in employment.

who are desirous of being taught or wish to follow up their previous instruction; this could be done by all to the extent of seven or eight hours per week; half-time would not suit the dispositions of the people, who do not wish to give up the *time and earnings of their children*.

13. (c) As manufacturers we found the half-time system so inconvenient and expensive, that we only employ children who can work $10\frac{1}{2}$ hours per day.

3. What is your experience as to the masters and mistresses trained at Normal schools? Has their training adapted them, or has it failed to adapt them in any and what particulars, for their duties; and especially for the more elementary branches of education, particularly reading? Do they show a tendency to be dissatisfied with their position, and on what grounds?

1. Without doubt trained masters and trained mistresses are much to be preferred to untrained. But I think there is much room for improvement in the mode of training. It is not practical enough. Too many and too high subjects are taught. The intellectual element is too much attended to, the moral element too little. Hence a distaste for the drudgery of teaching, superficial acquirements, self-conceit, and waywardness.

2. I may be deemed an interested witness and shall say nothing.

3. A person when trained will make a much better master or mistress than when not trained, although some untrained will be superior to others who have been trained. I have never seen the tendency referred to.

4. I do not know much on this head, but I have heard from clergymen that trained teachers are apt to spend more time on the higher branches, than on the common requirements. They naturally value themselves highly, and will not accept a school where the salary is not good.

6. I may have been particularly fortunate in my trained teachers, but certainly my experience goes to prove that their training has eminently fitted them for their work of elementary instruction. I have never found those with whom I have been connected dissatisfied with their position.

7. My reply must be restricted to Wesleyan teachers. In every respect their training has improved them. They are, as a body, very courteous; they occupy their place with perfect propriety; they are quite satisfied, and an honour to themselves and to the community to which they belong. In penning this reply, I contrast the trained teachers with the teachers I have had under my direction in more than 20 schools, which were worked by teachers who had not had the privilege of training in a Normal school.

9. I have heard them called "the right persons in the right places" (pardon me for repeating it). I think their training is well calculated to fit them for their *office*. I am not aware that they are dissatisfied with their position. But let me remark, I have known cases of dissatisfaction where teachers have managers who do not *fully understand* the Privy Council Regulations, the former suffering under a peculiar inconvenience, there is no *officer* to whom they can appeal, for they may not correspond with the Secretary of the Privy Council.

10. Their training has adapted them for their duties, and no tendency to be dissatisfied with their position appears; indeed, the contrary effect is produced, their duties being more easily and satisfactorily

performed from the training they have received. Their work becomes a pleasure to them, and the results of their labours are generally more encouraging than in the case of untrained teachers.

11. My own experience has not led me to prefer "trained masters and mistresses;" and I have, in some cases, thought that the more elementary branches are not sufficiently matured or attended to; *high*, and often, to the parties concerned, *useless* qualifications being encouraged with a view to advancement, on grounds *more specious than solid*.

12. Much superior to the teachers of adventure schools, and would prefer where the school is large to have assistance for the younger children.

4. Does the system adopted by the Committee of Council in reference to teachers trained at Normal schools, make it difficult to obtain competent teachers for uninspected schools?

1. I think it does.

2. The system acts thus, all the more energetic teachers gain certificates, the certificated teacher naturally prefers an inspected school; thus the unenterprising teacher is left for the uninspected school.

3. I have had no opportunity of forming an opinion.

4. Yes; because a certificated master will not (nor can we expect he should) accept a school not under inspection, else he would lose all benefit of his certificate.

6. Uninspected schools not offering such advantages, good teachers are naturally averse to taking charge of them if they can meet with schools under inspection.

7. I think it diminishes the difficulty. Some of those trained at Normal schools are still a little under the mark for inspected schools, and yet superior to what used to be; these go into uninspected schools, and so raise the general standard of teachers' qualifications.

9. Yes; except where managers are prepared to give an *extra salary* equal to a trained master's Government grants.

10. No difficulty arising from this cause is known in this locality.

11. The difficulty of obtaining really good teachers is very great in all schools, but uninspected schools have less chance.

12. In a slight degree.

5. (1.) What is your experience of the working of the system of pupil-teachers? (2.) Do the claims of the scholars and pupil-teachers on the master clash with each other; and if so, which are usually neglected? (3.) Where there are no pupil-teachers how is teaching conducted? (4.) And what is the comparative efficiency of schools at which they are and are not found?

1. (1, 2.) I think, to some extent, they do; and where this is the case the scholars are more generally neglected than the pupil-teachers.

(3, 4.) By the master alone, or by the master aided by monitors. Schools in which pupil-teachers are found are much more efficient than those in which they are not found.

2. I have had 10 pupil-teachers under me at one time. Their claims do not clash. If there be any neglect I have always found that the pupil-teachers are the sufferers.

Without pupil-teachers monitors are the most usual resource. There cannot be a shadow of a doubt that pupil-teachers make a school much more efficient.

3. Pupil-teachers under a good master are of great advantage. Proper arrangements will always keep them sufficiently separate. Before there were pupil-teachers the children in the head class were employed to teach in rotation, and received extra instruction afterwards, at least it was so here.

4. Decidedly good. But I consider that too much is required of a pupil-teacher, so that a master has to give more time to him than a man ought who has taught school all day; but I do not consider the masters neglect either scholars or pupil-teachers.

(3.) By assistance from some elder boys; schools in which they are not found (I mean, of course, large schools, *i.e.*, above 50 children) are in much worse condition than where the pupil-teachers are.

6. I think well of the system of pupil-teachers, and I do not find that their instruction interferes with that of the scholars. Where there are no pupil-teachers the children of the first class are generally brought out to teach in their turn, to their evident disadvantage as well as of those whom they are set over.

7. Practically I have not found the claims of scholars and pupil-teachers clash.

In my earlier schools we have had monitors paid and unpaid, upon whose efficiency that of pupil-teachers is a great advance in the right direction.

9. I would not like to be without *pupil-teachers*. I never knew the claims of scholars and teachers to *clash*. In schools without pupil-teachers upper scholars teach the lower classes, or one class is idle while the master teaches another.

The pupil-teacher schools are more efficient, as two to one.

10. The claims of the scholars and pupil-teachers on the master do *not* clash with each other. Where there are no pupil-teachers the master is generally overburdened with a large number of scholars, and he is obliged to employ some of the elder scholars as monitors, which is often injurious to the school, being generally distasteful to the children and disliked by the parents.

11. Pupil-teachers naturally have their own advancement in view.

(3.) By active and intelligent monitors.

6. Is there any disproportion between the supply and demand of schoolmistresses, and to what cause is it to be attributed?

1. The demand is greater than the supply. Want of female training schools.

2. Schoolmistresses are very scarce. Perhaps they marry and leave off their calling.

3. I have never known any; but good schoolmistresses are sometimes difficult to be met with.

4. Schoolmistresses are not so much wanted as masters, because the girls are so often kept at home to do work.

6. Schoolmistresses are not so plentiful as masters, perhaps owing to the fact that they often after marriage give up their occupation.

7. I think the supply of mistresses for girls' schools is sufficient to the present demand. But it is difficult to obtain a mistress for a mixed school.

9. Yes; the demand is greater than the supply. A *good* school-mistress seldom teaches more than *five years*. For the same qualities

which constitutes a *good schoolmistress* constitutes a *good wife*. Therefore, being well known, they soon get husbands.

10. The demand for efficient schoolmistresses is greater than the supply. One cause is, the strain upon their *health*; when they apply the energy necessary to carry on the school in full efficiency, their health frequently fails.

11. Good schoolmistresses very difficult to be had. Hence the demand may be considered greater than the supply.

12. Sufficient.

13. There is a great demand and very inadequate supply.

7. What is your opinion as to the efficiency of masters of endowed schools, and as to the purity of their appointments?

1. The difficulty of removing masters of endowed schools, whatever their character or inefficiency, is an evil; the knowledge of this difficulty has a tendency in the way of temptation to indolence and indifference.

2. I have a strong opinion that those masters are often chosen without proper care. Briefly, there is not unfrequently much "jobbery" in their appointment. An endowed master sometimes deteriorates after his appointment. He feels secure of his post. I have known several examples of gross drunkenness.

3. Where there is an endowment or a fixed salary to support and keep low the school fees, but not to do away with them, the efficiency of the master, I should expect, will be the greatest.

4. I have no knowledge.

6. The only endowed school under me is Bishop Barrington's school, which, I believe, stands very high in the district as a National school; but I have known several very inefficient masters of such schools, owing, I believe, in many cases to their feeling themselves in almost an irresponsible position.

7. Repeating my answer under Question 3, Paper I., I say that endowed schools for the working classes within my observation have been an evil. Such a school is generally nothing but a resting place for a ruthless or useless person; and if the teacher be not so at his appointment, he ordinarily becomes so in a short time.

9. The old masters of endowed schools were mostly men of *moderate education*. Teachers recently appointed are, I believe, *more* efficient. Trained teachers have received such appointments. There have been, and *sometimes* (but, perhaps, rarely) are now, appointments not quite satisfactory.

E. g. In the north of Yorkshire, a clergyman appointed his son, *only thirteen years of age*, to be second master in a grammar school with a salary of 70*l.* a year.

10. Very many of the masters of endowed schools are extremely inefficient; in the appointments private individual claims being frequently more considered than public fitness for the duty.

11. Cases vary so much as to admit of no concise reply.

8. What is your experience as to the efficiency of masters of private-adventure schools, and as to the nature of their previous occupations?

1. In general they are inefficient, and very often after failing in other occupations they turn to teaching, though in every way unqualified.

2. They are often broken down and drunken tradesmen. Sometimes I have known a pitman without a leg become a schoolmaster.

3. I have had very little experience of these. Masters brought up to other occupations cannot answer well unless properly trained.

4. They are of very little use, such private-adventure schools as I know. I judge by the little the children know when they come from such schools to my own.

6. Private-adventure schools are, I think, not of a very efficient character in this district.

7. May vary from full efficiency to entire uselessness. Ordinarily they are broken down men. If competent in knowledge and ability they generally are dissipated. If of thorough moral character, commonly they are afflicted, or have been unfortunate in business. There are honourable exceptions; the above, however, is the rule.

9. They are *very moderate indeed*. Too many are drunken. They are, or have been, men *too idle to work*,—broken-down tradesmen, cripples, men who have met with accidents, &c.

10. Generally speaking they have failed in making a livelihood at any other trade or handicraft; they have tried, and they resort to teaching for a living, and are usually very inefficient.

11. These vary much, but in the humbler class of schools many undertake the task who are very unsuitable.

12. Inefficient, and from any previous occupation in which they had failed.

9. What is your opinion of the subject-matter of education in various classes of schools in the district with which you are acquainted in respect of—

(a) Its tendency to develop the mental powers ?

(b) Its tendency to supply specific information of practical value ?

(c) Its tendency to fit the pupil for his future course of life ?

1. Children are in general too short a time at school, and too irregular in their attendance, to allow of the tendencies of their education to be properly developed, whatever they be. I fear, also, that bad example at home deprives their education of much good effects it might otherwise have.

2. All the subjects of education are here most elementary.

(a) Our teachers strive to make the subjects a means of developing the mental power. This is the main thing.

(b) The subjects of most practical value are, arithmetic, reading, writing.

(c) Tendency good, but not continued long enough.

3. The subjects of instruction in the Shincliffe parochial school are well calculated to develop the mental powers, to supply specific information in scriptural knowledge, in grammar, history, and geography, and particularly in the most useful parts of arithmetic; and consequently, when sufficient time is allowed, to fit them for their future course of life.

4. (a) The subject-matter may be good, but so much depends on the master; very few masters are capable of developing mental power.

(b) I think it will do this if well taught.

(c) I should say, that to make a boy or girl a good member of

society, the masters are not the sort of men that can gain moral influence over the children. As far as reading and writing go it might do ; but, unless a man can train a child for after-life in a moral, Christian point of view, I hold all education worse than useless.

6. I believe the education in all good National schools is well adapted to draw out the mental powers of the children ; also to supply information of practical value, which has a tendency to fit them for their after course in life.

7. I have no objection to make under any head, unless this be one, that girls are encouraged by the work too commonly done in the schools in a love of finery, which sadly disqualifies them for the future duties of service and married life.

9. In inspected schools, or where trained teachers are appointed, these three points are particularly attended to, and also the *manners* and *morals*.

In private adventure-schools (a) is much neglected ; (b) and (c) are only aimed at.

In endowed schools also (a) is overlooked.

10. (a) Its tendency is to develop the mental powers ; but its practical effect is not half so great as it ought to be, in consequence of the short time given by the mining population to education. This remark applies to (b) and (c).

11. (a) Good.

(b) Good.

(c) Good.

12. Schools under inspection are the best, in all cases where under Government the assistance and suggestions of the owners and occupiers of property would be of advantage, to the extent of visiting and recording the result as to the character of both master and his pupils.

10. Is it usual for parents to send their children to schools in connexion with other religious persuasions than their own ? and, if so, upon what terms as to special provision for their religious instruction or attendance upon religious worship, and are such terms usually enforced in practice ?

1. In a large number of cases parents not belonging to the Church of England send their children to Church of England schools without making any terms as to special provision, &c.

2. Yes.

Not any terms are made.

Parents are not half so suspicious and sensitive on the religious question as M.P.'s seem to fancy. In our schools we have children of all persuasions, and they all receive the same lessons ; and I have never heard a murmur.

3. There have been in this school the children of Romanists and various Dissenters, but no special provision for their religious instruction was ever made.

4. Yes, for week-day lessons, but not for Sundays. No terms at all. No objection is made, as far as I know, to the Church's teaching on week days ; but they expect, and are generally allowed, to attend their own place of worship. This I consider a mistake in all education, and what a conscientious clergyman can hardly do.

5. Indifference on these points seems to prevail.

6. In my own schools the understanding is that all the children attend the religious instructions, and they are only excused from attendance at church when the parents ask for leave to take them with themselves to their own place of worship.

7. Yes. I do not think they usually trouble themselves about what the second part of this question particularizes. When, however, they have an opportunity, they prefer a decidedly pious master and mistress of any denomination. The question of Church or Methodism, or dissent, is as nothing in comparison with that of personal religion and rectitude.

9. Yes. What religious instruction is to be given is never mentioned. Sunday attendance is not compulsory. Parents send their children to Sunday schools of their own persuasion, though this practice is not general.

10. This is usual. The terms are seldom referred to, excepting in the case of Roman Catholics coming to Protestant schools. The teacher engages not to enforce the learning of any catechism. In all other cases the *rule* is that the children are requested to attend *some* place of worship, but not restricted to that connected with the school. There are a few *exceptions* to this.

11. Dissenters send their children to Church schools rather than none.

The terms are *not* rigorously enforced in practice, but very much so in theory and in formal rules.

12. It is.

IV.—INTELLECTUAL RESULTS OF EDUCATION.

1. What is your experience as to the comparative value of educated and uneducated workmen and workwomen as such?

2. Much in favour of the educated man. I have heard many instances of his superiority.

4. As far as concerns pitmen an uneducated workman does quite as well, but educated pitmen are rare. I think pitmen who can read and write (this I do not call their education) are very frequently the leaders or abettors of strikes.

7. The educated workmen always get advanced. The best collieries in this district are worked principally by men taken out of the ranks, whose training in childhood was chiefly in the Sunday school. It is the same in the iron works.

The children who ran wild are seldom in manhood other than degraded and drunken and inferior workmen.

9. As a general rule, they (the former) are more trustworthy,—generally do better work,—give their masters less trouble,—and are more careful over their master's property, *e.g.*,—

(a) I heard Mr. Matthews (viewer of two large collieries, *with schools*) say: "I have no doubt *good schools* in collieries would *PAY*, because educated workmen are more *careful* than *ignorant men*."

(b) Educated workmen *nearly always* take parts with their masters during *strikes for wages*.

(c) Lady (Marchioness of) Londonderry has *good schools* established in all her collieries (and she has a great many). Her workpeople have never struck for wages.

(d) Coal and railway companies have owned that it is more profitable to employ as brakemen, firemen, guards, porters, &c. &c. *educated men*, rather than uneducated men, even at higher wages.

10. The mechanical value of the two is equal, but the advantage in the educated man is in his being aware of the value of his time, and therefore more to be depended upon for continuous labour.

11. Educated *very much* preferred.

12. An educated man can be promoted if he has ability otherwise, and less likely to be led astray.

13. That educated workmen and workwomen are by far the best in a mechanical sense, and are the leaven by which the mass are kept civil, obedient, and well-conducted.

14. I have been at Willington for eight years, but only occupied as "teacher" in an evening school since September, and I think the educated class are preferred in situations of responsibility.

2. What is your experience as to the value which poor people, who have received a good school education, set upon it in after-life?

1. They value it much.

2. There is some diversity on this point. Generally, those *fairly* educated do value it.

3. They profess to value it highly; but do not always use it to any great advantage, or try to obtain it for their children.

4. They value it, and are grateful for it.

5. Very great.

6. I believe that the poor think much of being, as they say, "good scholars;" but the date of their establishment does not enable me to speak with experience of the effect of the good schools on the after-life of the children.

7. They prize it highly, if they become religious men; but generally, though there are exceptions, if they be not religious they do not care about it. Even the mischievous political and trades-union spouters among the working men are usually those who improved in their opening and early manhood the advantages of their boyhood, under the influence of religious principle. The fact is, that nothing but religion does (I speak as to what is the almost universal fact) raise the working men of this district above the position they attain at school, and nothing but religion keeps them from abusing their attainments when raised. Educational advancement is a curse to the working man without the controlling and sustaining power of religion. The dangerous talkers I was referring to arose intellectually under religious guidance, and they have become what they are by losing or casting off religion. The mass of the people here are so conscious of the connexion of religion and education to make the latter beneficial, that they have no idea of separating them, and would resent any attempt to bring it about.

9. (a) They call it a great blessing, and therefore wish to give it to their children; hence,

(b) It is the educated parent who is the most careful to send his children to school, and keep them there.

10. They always prize it highly, and use their efforts to have their own children educated; and the educated workman may also generally be known by his superior moral conduct, his domestic habits, and bearing.

11. They generally—I should say, invariably—prize it much, and desire it for their children.

12. Those who have retained and improved upon the instruction received at school are very proud of having done so, and always express themselves as though they were thankful in having been so fortunate.

13. They appreciate it highly; it increases their self-respect, on which their whole conduct greatly depends.

14. Look upon it as an inestimable blessing.

3. How far do they avail themselves of such means of keeping up or extending their acquirements as reading-rooms, lectures, evening schools, and the like?

1. To a limited extent only.

2. As far as can fairly be expected.

3. The reading room here not numerously attended; lectures very generally fail; evening schools have never succeeded well.

4. It is with difficulty that we can get members for reading rooms and lectures.

6. I cannot say that I have, in this district, observed any great anxiety to keep up or to extend their acquirements by such means, that is, speaking generally of the young men and women, but I believe this may be partially accounted for by the indifference of parents as to their improving themselves.

7. With the exception of evening schools, hardly at all; and these are principally used by steady religious young men.

9. Reading rooms, lecture rooms, and discussion classes are generally attended, if under *proper management*. Evening schools are *mostly* attended by those whose education has been neglected in boyhood.

10. Those of the workmen who have been long enough at school to realize any pleasure from the acquirement of knowledge are generally found in connexion with reading-rooms, lectures, evening classes, public meetings, week-night preachings, &c., and so keep up and extend their acquirements.

11. A good attendance when lectures of a solid character are given. Libraries fairly encouraged.

12. The most industrious and temperate are generally subscribers to libraries, attend lectures, and some avail themselves of evening schools.

13. Not so much as they should or might do, but in this respect they are improving; we have just had an application from about 50 of our workmen to open a night school, and in consequence have engaged a master who will open a school at the factory at Christmas.

14. The hours for labour generally prevent their attendance at such means, having so little time for rest. Average days of labour 14 or 15 hours.

4. Has your experience enabled you to trace any connexion between the spread of popular education, and the spread of a taste for music, singing, drawing, and other similar accomplishments amongst the poor?

1. I have no experience on this point.

2. I have not myself yet observed any such connexion; but I have met persons who have noticed it.

3. No concerts here, vocal or instrumental, have been well attended. Bands in connexion with the public houses most popular.

4. No; I hardly think education has sufficiently advanced to have that effect; when it becomes more taught and in schools it may influence people, but of late years a taste for music has certainly increased rapidly.

5. A most decided advance in all these respects.

6. I think I have noticed of late, along with the spread and improved character of popular education, a growing taste for music, &c. amongst the young people, as I find them ready to join classes which are formed for such object.

2. Most certainly. The love of music, singing, drawing, &c. is decidedly on the increase.

10. The spread of a taste for music and singing may be traced in connexion with the spread of popular education, but this has been accomplished more by Sunday schools than day schools in these districts. As to drawing, &c., the requirements of the poor connected with coal mines are not such as to call forth their talents in this direction, and therefore the connexion in these cannot be traced.

11. Popular education, good singing, and *skilful drawing* are found to make good progress together.

12. Some have a taste for music and singing; drawing and other accomplishments are little thought of.

14. Where popular education exists there is a taste for the accomplishments named, especially music and singing.

OBSERVATIONS, NOTES, &c.

Note A.—There are also large quantities of Irish in the city of Durham, who send their children out to beg, &c., instead of to school.

Rev. JOHN CUNDILL, B.D.,
Perpetual Curate of St. Margaret's,
Durham.

Note B.—Durham; 17th November 1858.—I am the incumbent of the parish of St. Nicholas in this city; population 3,000; largely poor. There is a large school of old standing called the Bluecoat School, which will account for there being no parochial school; it is conducted by a committee, and I have no control over it; I am unable, therefore, to furnish as minute statistics as I otherwise might. To increase the supply of religious education I have some hold over my own people. I am at present building a Sunday school adjoining the church, also in course of erection; this will be in addition to the Bluecoat Sunday school already in existence. I would venture to express my conviction very strongly, as to the great source of moral evil amongst the working classes which impedes education and destroys the benefit that would otherwise arise from it; it is the drunkenness of the lower orders, superinduced by a redundancy of liquor traffic. So long as my parish is drenched with liquor and overwhelmed with public houses, I can hope for very little moral or educational progress. It is my deep conviction, that the Legislature will reap comparatively slender and unsatisfactory results from its great efforts to educate the people until this great stumbling-block and temptation is removed out of the way; a large portion of our school children, under the present system, become drunkards before they are 30.

Rev. G. T. Fox,
Incumbent of St. Nicholas,
Durham.

Note C.—A few months since Henderson and Co. required to appoint a young woman in one of their departments to a superior position, where a knowledge of writing and the three first rules of arithmetic were required; there were nine young women of respectable appearance and of fair good conduct, but not one of these had the requisite education. The weekly earnings of the nine young women would be about 6s. 6d. each.

WILLIAM HENDERSON,
Manufacturer, Durham.

REPORT

OF

JOHN JENKINS, ESQ.

Note C.—A few months since Henderson and Co. required to appoint a young woman in one of their departments to a superior position, where a knowledge of writing and the three first rules of arithmetic were required; there were nine young women of respectable appearance and of fair good conduct, but not one of these had the requisite education. The weekly earnings of the nine young women would be about 6s. 6d. each.

WILLIAM HENDERSON,
Manufacturer, Durham.

REPORT
OF
JOHN JENKINS, ESQ.

CONTENTS.

DESCRIPTION OF THE "SPECIMEN DISTRICT":—Its Limits, Population, and Physical Character, pp. 437-440.—Method of Inquiry, 440-443.

MORAL AND SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE POPULATION:—Past Condition, p. 443. Causes of Change, 443-444.—Popular Literature, 444-446.—Moral Condition of the Population in North Wales, 446.—South Wales, 446-448.—Illegitimacy, 448-449.—The Welsh Language, 449-456.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF EDUCATION:—Statistics of Day Schools, pp. 457-469.—Early Withdrawal; Consideration of Remedies suggested, 470-480.—Evening Schools, 480-483.—Sunday Schools, 483-496.

MODE OF EDUCATION:—Management of Public Schools, pp. 496-499.—State of Opinion on Government Aid, 499-505.—Operation of Government Grants on voluntary Efforts, 505-507.—Objections to the present Administration of Government Grants, 507-513.—Distribution of Population and Religious Differences present Obstacles to Education Diffusion, 513-531.—Mode of supporting Schools, 521-529.—School Buildings, Fittings, &c., 529-534.—Condition of Schoolmasters, 532-539.—Charity Schools, 539-542.

SUBJECT-MATTER OF EDUCATION:—Proportions of Scholars in the different Branches of Learning, pp. 542-547.—Subject-matter of Education in Schools, 547-549.—Quality of Education, Reading, Spelling, Grammar, &c., 549-552.—Religious Instruction, 552-554.—Public Feeling in Wales in reference to it, 554-555.—Religious Instruction in English to Welsh speaking Scholars, 555-556.—Methods of Instruction, 562-566.—Use of the English Language as the Medium of Instruction to Welsh speaking Children, 566-571.

APPENDIX, p. 572.

REPORT of ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER JOHN JENKINS, Esq.,
*on the STATE of POPULAR EDUCATION in the WELSH SPECI-
 MEN DISTRICTS in the POOR LAW UNIONS of CORWEN,
 DOLGELLY, BALA, FFESTINOG, NEATH, and MERTHYR
 TYDFIL in NORTH and SOUTH WALES.*

Swansea, 4th June 1859.

MY LORD DUKE AND GENTLEMEN,

I HAVE the honour to lay before you the following report
 on the state of popular education in the "Welsh Specimen
 District."

This district comprises the several parishes and parochial divisions Limits, Area,
 and Population
 of the District. of the four Poor Law Unions of Corwen, Dolgelley, Bala, and Ffestiniog in North Wales, and the parishes and parochial divisions of the Unions of Neath and Merthyr Tydfil in South Wales. The North Wales Unions include the whole of the county of Merioneth with the exception of the parishes of Penal and Towyn, a portion of South Carnarvonshire, the parish of Mallwyd in Montgomeryshire, together with eight parishes or parochial divisions in the county of Denbigh. The two South Wales Unions are in the county of Glamorgan, with the exception of the parish of Ystradvelte and the divisions of Upper and Lower Ystradgunlais in the Neath Union, and the parishes of Penderyn and Vainor in the Merthyr Union—all which are in the county of Brecon. The total number of parishes and parochial divisions in the four Unions of North Wales is forty-eight, and in the two unions of South Wales thirty-nine, the area of the former being 1,159 square miles, and of the latter 431 square miles. The aggregate population of the North Wales Unions, according to the census of 1851, was 51,307, and of the Unions of Merthyr Tydfil and Neath 123,711.

For the purposes of this inquiry it has been deemed desirable The Unions
 classed under
 three heads. that the Unions should have a classification founded on the character of their principal industrial pursuits and occupations. In this point of view the four North Wales Unions constitute the agricultural section or subdivision of the district; the Union of Neath a mixed mining or manufacturing and agricultural section; and that of Merthyr Tydfil a mining and manufacturing section. This arrangement of the Unions is recommended by the opportunities which it affords for observing educational and other institutions which are adverted to in this report under different social aspects, and of testing them under varied conditions.

As many of the points to which I shall have occasion to advert have a direct reference to the physical character and resources

Physical Character and Resources of the District.

—
North Wales.

of the country and the economic condition of its population, I think it expedient, in this place, to give a description of the district as it respects these features.

The North Wales sub-division of the district is, as has been above observed, for the most part purely agricultural, the exceptions being the population of the ports along the sea coast on the west, of the slate quarries of Ffestiniog and Corris, and of a few manufactures, principally of the native flannel, in the towns. The general aspect of this portion of the country is that of a barren, mountainous region, yielding little beyond a scanty pasturage, with narrow valleys between the mountain ranges. This determines the character of its agriculture—by far the greater proportion of its surface being occupied as sheep or cattle breeding farms, or small holdings in the valleys with large mountain districts attached to them. Many of these farms have an extensive acreage, but in a country so sterile this must not be interpreted as an invariable index to the wealth or station of the holders. A large proportion of them are of the class of small tenant farmers, and in position are little superior to the labouring population by which they are surrounded. With the exception of the eastern portion of Merionethshire, attempts to raise cereal crops are few and on a very limited scale. Hence, as comparatively little of the land is under culture, the supply of labour from the natural increase of population is at least always equal to the demand. There is, therefore, no immigration into the district, and the great mass of the population is as purely aboriginal as that of any district in the kingdom. The peasantry or labourers give evidence that they are no exception to the rule which recognises frugality and simple tastes as characteristics of the pastoral life. If they are not poor it is because they have few wants and are sparing in their habits. The average of their wages, though it has risen considerably of late years, is lower than that of the more favoured districts which border on the great labour markets of the country. Their dwellings are thatched cottages without gardens, whose apparently half ruined condition gives note of a degree of poverty far exceeding the reality. Within, these cottages—really a single room with the slightest possible divisions for sleeping accommodation, with an earth floor, and the absence of a grate supplied by a fire kindled on a hearthstone, present an interior in keeping with their exterior aspect. Of late years, however, considerable improvements have been made in the building and arrangements of the dwellings of this portion of the population, particularly in the neighbourhood of towns and of the slate quarries. The rugged and mountainous character of the country renders communication between its different parts costly, if not difficult, while that between it and the great centres of population and industry in England is limited to certain great lines of road which pass through the valleys from west to east. The trade of the towns principally consists in the supply of the inhabitants of the neighbouring districts with such articles of importation as they require. The towns, together with the fairs of the country, con-

stitute the only points of communication with England, I may say with the without world. In their aspect they reflect the quietude of the agricultural districts by which they are surrounded. The outline I have given may be deemed complete when I add that the ownership of these sterile mountain districts and of the richer valleys which lie between them is distributed for the most part among a few great proprietors, in the extent of whose possessions, as well as in their influence, we may recognize the dim reflection in modern times of the power of the chieftains and princes in centuries long past, from whom many of them claim descent.

The South Wales Unions present a marked contrast to the The South Wales Unions. outline I have above given. Situated in the centre of a district abounding in coal, iron ore, and other minerals, with ports, whose convenient outlets for this wealth to the sea invite trade from every country in the world, the Unions of Neath and Merthyr Tydfil exhibit all the features of districts in a stage of transition or rather of rapid development in their physical and social condition. Towns and large villages are scattered over the whole area wherever the vast manufactures, which afford labour a market, attract to them a population. Railroads, canals, and highways offer facilities for intercommunication between the several towns and populous districts, as well as with the great centres of commerce and wealth in England. Consequent on a rapidly increasing demand for labour we find a continuous influx into them of a new population, the great mass of which is contributed by the agricultural districts of Carmarthenshire, Cardiganshire, and the western and northern counties of South Wales, but with a very considerable admixture of immigrants from the neighbouring counties of Somerset, Devon, and Gloucester, as well as from Ireland. These generally swell the ranks of unskilled labour. Ascending higher in the social scale we have a larger infusion of the English element in the skilled artisans, tradesmen, and capitalists who have become settlers in the district. This immigration is not limited to the towns, but is distributed over all parts of the district, over every neighbourhood where speculation or enterprise have attempted to open up the mineral wealth or other resources of the country.—Interspersed with the manufacturing and mining is a considerable agricultural population which, however, unlike the former, is almost wholly composed of the Welsh or aboriginals of the district. A large extent of the surface in both Unions consists of highland or mountain lands, the soil of which is poor and, except for pasturage, unproductive. The farmers are generally small farmers, but in the valleys the holdings are on a more extensive scale. The dwellings of the labouring population present a marked contrast to those in North Wales as it respects building and the interior arrangements. The cottage garden is here the rule, and, generally speaking, the labouring population in the South give evidence of being in command of a greater amount of domestic and social comfort than is possessed by the same class in North Wales. In the former the increase of wealth has brought with it a greater distribution of property and created a large

intermediate class between the great landowners and yearly tenants. All the features of this district attest rapid change and progress, even agriculture, showing that it participates in the influences which close proximity to the neighbourhood of large manufacturing or commercial communities brings to bear upon it.

MODE OF INQUIRY.

Mode of
Inquiry.

Public and
Private Day
Schools and
Evening
Schools.

Before giving the results elicited by this inquiry, I think it proper to describe the mode in which they have been obtained.

With the aid of the clerks I distributed to public and private day and evening schools throughout the district the circulars (proper to each class of schools) issued by the Commissioners. As a general rule the educational provision in each parish or parochial division was inquired into before proceeding to the next, until all the parishes in the Union were exhausted, and returns were made of the schools visited according to a form which I prepared, specially adapted to peculiar features in the district. In all cases the clerks and myself were careful to explain the several points of information sought for by the circular, and, generally, we rendered every aid in our power towards facilitating returns being made by the school teachers. As circulars M and N demanded, on the part of the masters, time for the preparation of the returns, a printed form was delivered with the circular, by which, when filled up, it could be forwarded to me by post. In this department of the inquiry the wide extent of many of the parishes, and the little information which the people in one part of a parish could give us of the school provision in others, rendered it necessary for me or the assistants, in most cases, to traverse the parishes in several directions. In South Wales, through the kindness of H.M. Inspector of the Neath and Merthyr Poor Law Unions, and the recommendation of the Boards of Guardians of those Unions, we derived much valuable information as to the locality of schools from the rate collectors and other Union officials.

Sunday
Schools.

In the Sunday schools I encountered difficulties of another kind than those which occurred in the case of day schools; among these was the fact, that the managers and teachers of Sunday schools constitute a class who, although intelligent on religious subjects, were not generally competent to deal with statistical forms of inquiry without much preliminary explanation. To overcome this obstacle, in addition to the explanation given to the managers on the delivery of the circulars, whenever an opportunity occurred I selected a person in each neighbourhood, to whom reference could be made in the event of difficulties being experienced in getting up the details required. There was also the more formidable obstacle, that out of the towns, both in North and South Wales, comparatively few only of the Sunday School officials had sufficient knowledge of the English language to be enabled to understand the circulars. This was obviated by publishing in the Welsh language, a translation of the headings of the

several columns in circular P, with a few plain directions on the method of filling them up. I have the satisfaction of knowing that this facilitated the preparation of returns from the Sunday schools in country districts. In subsequently visiting a large number of schools for the purpose of inspecting their methods of instruction, I had frequent opportunities of testing the accuracy of the returns which had been forwarded to me, and as a result, I entertain a favourable opinion of the care and fidelity with which the more important columns of circular P have been filled up.

In the Neath and Bala Unions, with a view to exclude so far as possible, all elements of doubt as to accuracy, I employed a somewhat different machinery in collecting the statistics of Sunday schools. Instead of relying on the circulars being filled up by the officials of the schools, I engaged a number of persons who themselves made the enumeration of the particulars required in the several columns. This method of taking the Sunday school statistics of these Unions involved some additional labour and delay, in securing an adequate staff of competent enumerators, which were, however, more than compensated for by obtaining results that may be relied upon, and which may be applied as tests of other methods, such as that of the census of 1851.

Enumerators
employed in
the Neath and
Bala Unions.

Throughout Wales there is a large number of Sunday schools which, though connected with a place of worship, are held at some distance from the church or chapel to which they belong, and from which they take their designation. In a country where the congregation is obtained from a population scattered over an area of several miles, and where intercommunication between localities is difficult, these branch schools constitute the machinery by which religious instruction has been carried to the remotest and least accessible districts of a mountainous region. In local and in some general returns of Sunday schools, which have recently been made in the Principality, I observe that the aggregate numbers only of the branch and parent schools are given. This practice, more particularly where, as in this district, it has not been uniformly adhered to, leads to confusion and apparent discrepancy in statements which are given of the provision made for this feature in the religious instruction of Wales. Throughout this inquiry I have uniformly adopted the rule of treating every branch school as a separate and independent school; and in issuing circulars to the managers of such schools, I have urged the importance of their adherence to the same principle. The recognition of branch as separate schools has the obvious advantage of showing the distribution of Sunday school instruction over the area of inquiry, and places in a striking point of view the facility with which this institution adapts itself to peculiarities in the physical character of the country, and the distribution of its population,—features which aggregate returns, in which branch are merged in the parent schools, cannot so fully bring out.

Separate Re-
turns from
Branch Sunday
Schools.

In conformity with the instructions of the Commissioners, I visited and examined a large number of day schools, public and

Examination
of Schools.

private, for the purpose of determining their comparative efficiency and the character of the instruction given in them. As time would not admit of my examining each school so minutely as to be in a position to pronounce upon these points, I grouped the schools into classes, *e.g.*, public, private, dames' schools, and selected such a number of each as might enable me to judge of the quality of the instruction which they professed to give. The scholars in these schools were carefully examined in the various branches of learning taught in them. Other schools to which I had not the opportunity of devoting so much time were examined on special branches selected from the more prominent subjects of the school course, while the remaining schools were visited with a view to determine the adequacy and character of the school accommodation, and points relative to their order, discipline, or management.

I also visited a large number of Sunday schools of all denominations in rural districts and in towns throughout each union in which the inquiry was conducted. On these occasions I gave special attention to the schools in which instruction is imparted through the medium of the Welsh language, as they present peculiar features in the religious training of the population, to which reference is made in a subsequent portion of this Report. From the notes which I took of the examinations (which were uniformly conducted by the class teachers) and from interviews with the managers, I obtained valuable information as to the methods and subject-matter of the instruction afforded by the Welsh Sunday schools as well as their general efficiency and the extent of their influence over the people.

Evidence.

A highly important feature in this inquiry was that of eliciting from competent persons in the several localities of my district information on the educational condition of their respective neighbourhoods. In this branch of the inquiry it will be seen from the Appendix that, in addition to that class of questions which are properly comprised under the head of education, the inquiry was extended to points in the social and moral condition of the population, their wages, habits, nature of employment, and other features which, as retarding or accelerating influences, all determine the actual condition of education among a people so circumstanced as the population of Wales. This department of the inquiry was carried out in part by personal interviews with influential parties, including magistrates, the clergy of different denominations, landowners, manufacturers, and employers of large bodies of men, who, from the interest they took in or the experience they had accumulated on educational subjects, might be expected to give me such information as I required. With a view to rendering the information thus collected as correct a reflection of public opinion as possible, I also availed myself of the opinions of tradesmen, farmers, and working men, and their evidence constitutes not the least valuable portion of that which is found in the Appendix. In the agricultural districts, the prosecution of the inquiry by personal interviews was a work of some difficulty from the necessity, in thinly popu-

lated localities, of passing over an extensive area in order to obtain a comparatively inadequate amount of information. I endeavoured to remedy this inconvenience by the distribution of printed series of questions, which, however, I found I could successfully avail myself of only to a limited extent. In the case of farmers and the labouring population who were conversant with Welsh only, I translated into English at the time the information that was supplied to me.

MORAL AND SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE POPULATION.

The moral and social condition of a people has such immediate bearings on their educational state, that it becomes an antecedent necessary to be taken into account, in order to determine many of the questions implied in an education inquiry. In the district to which this report refers, where difference of race has given to the character of the people highly distinctive qualities, a preliminary sketch of their peculiarities becomes the more necessary. I therefore propose at this stage to advert to those features in the character of the population of Wales which illustrate its present condition as it respects education, and the means to be adopted for its furtherance in the future. A fuller comprehension of the subject will be obtained by a preliminary retrospect of the circumstances by which these features have been influenced and determined.

Up to a comparatively recent date Wales constituted one great and almost exclusively agricultural district. With a population dependent on the soil, and that soil a poor one, with no manufactories, no commerce to stimulate its energies, no communication so far as the mass of the people was concerned with the great centres of activity and of progress in England, its condition was stationary, and this by the advance of districts more within the circle of influences which stimulate improvement became comparative retrogradation. The customs, habits, and general tone of thought as well as the social arrangements of a past age were, among a people thus circumstanced, retained long after they had disappeared in more favoured districts. The country was divided into two classes, small farmers and large landowners, without any intermediate class to fill up the great distance between them, and by becoming the medium of communication becoming also the instruments of improvement in the manners and tastes of the population.

It was not until the middle of the last century that two great elements of social improvement and life broke in upon this quiescent—almost stagnant state of the Welsh mind. These were the religious movement and the development of the mineral resources of the country. As to the first, I may briefly sum up its features by saying that a class of men arose in Wales who emulated the zeal which gave rise to the labours of Whitfield and Wesley in England.

Past social condition of Wales.

The Religious Movement a cause of change.

In a comparatively brief period they produced a revolution in the habits and whole tone of thought of the Welsh people, they achieved changes which are unsurpassed in the history of social changes among any other people. Under these influences the place of worship has become the school of the population of Wales, the religious spirit has fanned and kept alive whatever intellectual influence prevails among them, and religious instruction has permeated the remotest recesses of the Principality. Throughout the whole country Sunday schools, and institutions of an analogous character, are established which afford the means of religious instruction not only to children but to the adult portion of the population.

The develop-
ment of mineral
resources
another cause.

Almost contemporaneously with the religious movement came another element of change, which, though in its more immediate results affecting the southern portion of the Principality only, exercised a powerful influence over the agricultural districts of Wales generally. I refer to the discovery of the mineral resources of the country, and the introduction of manufacturing industry into South Wales. It would be difficult, by the aid of mere description, to picture in their reality the effects which, within a comparatively brief period, have been brought about by an agency the first foundations of which were laid scarcely a century since. Within some sixty or seventy years a change has taken place scarcely less marvellous for its rapidity than what we read of in the new states of America or our own Australia. Single habitations scattered over secluded districts have multiplied into villages; villages swollen into towns; power has been embodied in all the complications of machinery, while smelting and other processes of manufacture, developing enterprise, some amount of skill, ingenuity, and mind, are carried on upon a scale so vast as to convert extensive districts of the country into one grand laboratory—centres of human labour, activity, and enterprise.

The popular
literature of
Wales.

This review will explain general features in the existing state of popular literature in Wales, and the means of the intellectual improvement of the people which are referred to in the course of this Report. As to its natural capacity, the Welsh mind has been rightly described as exhibiting great intellectual activity in combination with reasoning and imaginative powers of a high order; but it will be seen from what has been above said that, up to a very recent period, the people have been placed in circumstances and subject to influences unfavourable to the direction of these powers to practical results and useful ends. This is illustrated in the literature of the country, which has been, nearly up to the present time, almost exclusively theological, the only exceptions being the poetry of the national bards, and contributions to the antiquities and history of the country. For the Welsh speaking portion of the population there were (and unfortunately the remark is to a great extent applicable to the present time) no books for general reading, or by which information on any branch of modern knowledge could be acquired, nor does the Welsh language at the present hour contain a nomen-

clature adequate to the requirements of modern science or art. The only resources for popular reading were the periodicals, and they too were theological. Their character was essentially controversial, and in this respect they accommodated themselves to the peculiar tendencies of the Welsh mind, which, in the absence of knowledge of a more positive kind, sought a sphere for its innate activity in dialectic disquisitions and exercises, conducted in a spirit in which asperity and even personality were called in to aid the force of argument. A love of discussion carried to the verge of subtle distinctions is a characteristic of the Welsh mind, equally in politics, morals, and theology. A class of literature thus consulting features ingrafted in the national character could not less than be successful in its appeals to a religious people like the Welsh, and we accordingly find that the religious periodical has an almost universal circulation among the monoglot portion of the population, and a great amount of influence in directing public opinion.

I speak of this branch of Welsh literature in the past time, as my remarks would have to be received with some qualifications as to its present state. Within the past ten years there has been a great improvement in its character and spirit, though I am assured that there remains ample room for still further amendment.

The increase of skilled labour and mechanical appliances, with other causes, has of late originated a demand in Wales for general and useful knowledge, which has been responded to by efforts for the extension of popular literature among the Welsh speaking portion of the population. These efforts have been attended with varied success. The increasing number and extending circulation of newspapers attest that the value of that important branch of a people's literature is appreciated by the Welsh. They hold forth prospects of rivalling the religious periodicals in the universality of their distribution throughout the country. Since the abolition of the compulsory stamp on newspapers their number has been more than quadrupled, some of them having a circulation of several thousands on each issue. The information embodied in them is much of the same character as that which is found in the English newspaper, and, so far as literary merit and political discussion are concerned, may be advantageously contrasted with the provincial newspaper press in England. The extension of the Welsh newspaper would appear to indicate the taste of the people for general as well as for that theological knowledge to which alone they have hitherto had access.

The attempt to diffuse a knowledge of popular science through the medium of Welsh has, I am assured, proved a failure. Apart from the fact, that a large proportion of the population of the country are extremely deficient in the preliminary training necessary to impart a taste for scientific reading, the nomenclature employed in conveying scientific notions is so remote from the

Welsh newspapers.

Failure of translations of books on elementary science.

vernacular that it presents obstacles fully as formidable to the ordinary Welsh reader as the acquisition of another language.*

Popular recreations :
Eisteddfodau.

The tastes of a people are in nothing more clearly reflected than in their recreations. Those of the Welsh partake more of an intellectual than a physical character. Music, poetry, elocution, or subjects in which mind is more or less implied, being their favourite amusements. This is strikingly illustrated in the Eisteddfodau,†—originally assemblages of Welsh literati and bards for promoting the cultivation of the national music, language, and literature, which were subsequently adopted by the people, with an extension of their objects to adapt them to modern wants. As at present constituted the popular Eisteddfodau award prizes to successful competitors in music, poetry, and compositions on subjects in history, popular science, and the applications of science to practical objects. These gatherings exhibit the rare spectacle of a peasant and labouring population, not only spontaneously establishing for themselves intellectual gymnasia, and contributing largely the pecuniary means of their support, but entering themselves into the lists as competitors, and frequently with success. Of a people whose tastes and aspirations thus tend to the intellectual, we may anticipate important results when the advantages of a sound education are fairly brought within their reach.

MORAL CON-
DITION.

North Wales
Unions.

I turn to the moral condition of the population. The people in the northern portion of my district may be described as a sober, frugal, and well-regulated people, equally observant of personal morality and of those more general duties on which the peace and wellbeing of a community so much depend. They are deeply imbued with the religious spirit. When the general poverty of the country is taken into consideration, the number of institutions of a religious and philanthropic character which they support—surprises us; and the zeal and activity with which movements of various kinds, having for their object the amelioration of existing social defects are promoted, attest the existence of a wider sympathy than that which emanates from the spirit of proselytism or party. We have proof of their provident and careful character, in the number of benefit clubs and other depositories established throughout the country for the investment of the gains of the labouring classes. The absence of crimes of the grave class has become almost proverbial of the Welsh character, while the infrequency of minor offences in the North Wales Unions, and the regular attendance of so large a mass of the population at the place of worship and Sunday schools are points indicated by the evidence found in the Appendix, and fully bear out the description I here give of the leading features in the moral condition of the population of the North Wales Unions to which this inquiry extended.

South Wales
Unions.

In the manufacturing districts in South Wales this description does not apply without considerable modification. The rapid

* The first volume of "Chambers' Information for the People" was translated into Welsh some ten years since. It gives proofs of great ability on the part of the translators, but as a commercial speculation has, I am informed, been unsuccessful.

† Literally a sitting or session.

influx of population, from the simple habits and unvarying quietude of the agricultural counties to the increased temptations attendant on the congregation of large masses on one spot, the sudden transfer from low to high-money wages, and the intermixture of races, have brought with them a large amount of the various forms of immorality usually found in towns and populous districts. There is, however, a marked difference between the mining populations in different localities of the South Wales Unions. In the south or Neath sub-district, where the demand for labour is more regular, the immigration not only more gradual, but composed of a greater variety of classes, the masses are, in point both of morality and intelligence, superior to those of the more northern manufacturing and mining sub-district, where the influx of population has been sudden, and the labour is almost wholly of the unskilled kind. Intemperance is the great evil complained of, and there is no doubt that it prevails to a very considerable extent in the north or Merthyr portion of the South Wales district, more especially in localities where new works have recently sprung up and suddenly summoned a mixed population to supply the demand which they have created for labour. The manners and habits of the people in these localities are of a coarser order than in those the settlement of which is of older date. This remark, however, applies only to particular neighbourhoods, and cannot strictly be said to indicate the character of the general population of the district. On the contrary, looking to the statements given in the evidence—to the large proportion of the population everywhere in attendance in the Sunday school, and the extent to which religious and other agencies of improvement are supported by the working people, we may conclude that intemperance or other excesses are characteristic of “special classes,” not of the great bulk of the labouring population. As in the agricultural sub-district of North Wales, the Welsh colliers and other labourers in the south are religious, and generally associated with and subject to the discipline of some one or other denomination, and in their general conduct are peaceable, orderly, and well conducted. As one fact which gives evidence of the moral condition of the population, I may observe that the cottages of the labouring classes throughout the South Wales Unions generally indicate a regard for personal comfort and domestic order which is so manifestly wanting in the peasantry of North Wales. Those erected of late years are well arranged, and the various rooms are properly separated, so as to secure privacy. They are well furnished and clean, and in the rural districts have attached to them gardens, which not unfrequently are fully stocked and cultivated. In the Neath Union a large proportion of the labouring people erect their own cottages on leases for a term varying from fifty to ninety years at small ground rents. This laudable ambition of becoming “their own landlords” is rapidly spreading among the industrious classes throughout the manufacturing and mining districts of the two unions of Neath and Merthyr, and is attended with very marked and beneficial results in the promotion of habits of economy, forethought, and

sobriety. Provident societies, in the shape of sick clubs, benefit building societies, and similar organisations, have been established throughout country districts as well as in the towns. The caution and calculation which are such prominent features in the Welsh character are strongly exemplified in the extent to which the people avail themselves of institutions of this kind. The payments to the Swansea Benefit Building Societies in the year 1858, I am informed on good authority, amounted to 30,000*l.*, while the deposits in the Swansea Savings Bank for the same year were 31,868*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.*,—the total representing the savings principally of the industrial classes of the town and neighbourhood. Swansea is immediately contiguous to the Neath Union, and the institutions to which I have referred are available to a population of about 100,000, according to the census of 1851. The improvement in the social and moral aspect of the whole district has been very marked within the past ten years.

Prevalence of
Illegitimacy.

The evidence, however, indicates the existence of practices among the population of Wales, which exhibit its moral condition in an aspect anomalous, if not inconsistent, with those features in the character of the people which I have above described. I refer to the extensive prevalence of illegitimacy, more particularly in the rural and agricultural districts. This evil has been very strongly brought before me.

Looking, however, to the features which mark its prevalence, I think that we cannot legitimately regard it as a consequence of general dissoluteness in the community, but as one of those exceptional features which are sometimes found to exist in a people's character, arising from causes proper to a past condition, but which have been maintained up to the present time, despite the better influences which have subsequently been conducing to social improvement. In part, these causes are common to the agricultural districts both of Wales and England, but many of them at least are peculiar to a country where, as in Wales, the poverty of the soil has given a distinct character to the relations of its agricultural population, and to their domestic and social habits. Side by side, as it were, with illegitimacy, we find the absence of what have been so happily termed the "physical agencies of civilisation." We have, for example, in the cottage of the Merionethshire peasant and the dwellings of small farmers, approaching the level of the hovel, an absence of the provisions which delicacy suggests for securing privacy and the separation of the sexes; and we have other features in the condition of this population which, whatever may be its virtues, has not added to them that refinement of feeling as it respects the intercourse of young persons during the period of courtship—those æsthetic qualities which, when they assume the fixity and force of long-established habit in a community, elevate the standard of taste and morality, and become the outworks by which virtue in woman is defended. The evidence indicates that, by the joint agencies of the progress of general intelligence, and of the improvement of the physical condition of the population, the practices which were so powerfully

promoted by these causes are rapidly disappearing.* Pregnancy before marriage is a case in illustration of this. In past years examples of this breach of chastity were frequent among young women, the daughters of small farmers, and others of the same station. It is now almost unknown among that class. In some districts too, where I am informed it was prevalent in past years, it has disappeared with the improvements of the dwellings of the poor, and of their social condition generally. We thus connect the existence of the evil with a special class of conditions within which it appears to be limited, and infer that it does not justify the conclusion of the general demoralisation of the population. From the great improvement which has already taken place as regards this practice we have grounds for anticipating that the time is not far distant when education, concurrently with other agencies of social progress now in operation throughout this district, will cause this relic of barbarous times to be numbered with the things that have been.

At the very threshold of the difficulties in the way of education extension among the Welsh people is the fact that the great bulk of the population are ignorant of the English language, and speak another language—the Welsh or old language of the country—than that which must be to them the medium, not only of education, but of that general knowledge which is necessary to fit them for the ordinary business of life. The Welsh language, as I have elsewhere observed, contains no materials to supply, nor is its literature adequate to meet, the requirements of knowledge in modern times; it is the language of the past and not of the present. But even if this were not the case to the extent that it is, it is in English that the Welshman must ultimately be instructed, in order to enter on the competition of life, on anything like fair terms, or with anything like equal chances of success. The disadvantages to which the Welsh people are subject in consequence of this difference in language are indeed immense, and the importance of diffusing among them a knowledge of English is proportionally great. It is in the English language that the laws are administered, that all extensive commercial transactions, and a large proportion of the minor operations of trade, must necessarily be carried on, and that all the intercourses by which civilisation and progress are sustained, are recorded. “Cut off from the English language, the Welshman is,” in the words of a writer on this subject, “virtually cut off from access to sources in which the many improvements and great discoveries in arts and in the sciences up to the present time, in which, in short, all that has been accomplished by society moving onward towards improvement for the past three hundred years are laid up, as it were, in a grand repository.” This writer, in a lecture on education in Wales, thus

The Welsh language an obstacle to educational diffusion.

* The proportion of illegitimate children in North Wales in the year 1842 showed an excess of 12·3 per cent. above the average of all England and Wales for the same year. In 1858 the excess above the general average was only 1·3 per cent.

sets forth the disadvantages to which a monoglot Welshman of the working order is subject. After an allusion to the paucity of books containing records of modern improvements in practical science, he proceeds to say:—

“If a Welshman wished to be acquainted with any department of art or of practical science, if he would know even the simple principles of any branch of physical knowledge, he has not even an elementary work on the subject in his own language. He must learn English as a first step to his improvement. The great, the incalculable disadvantage which results from a whole people being in this state can only be fully perceived or felt, by supposing an individual case and applying that case generally. Take that of a working engineer who knows only the Welsh language. He possesses native talent which qualifies him for the highest departments of his vocation, but has not even the chance of learning the principles of his calling, nor the means of knowing what improvements are being made in it with his Welsh only, for he has neither books nor periodicals on mechanics to read. Without English there is not a possibility of his attaining any knowledge beyond what his own observation within the narrow boundaries of his own country can supply him with. * * * But however great may be his talent, or whatever the amount of his acquirements, he is limited in employing them to Wales, unless he has a knowledge of English. Without this a trip across the Severn reduces him to a mere cypher, for his language cuts him off from communication with England.”

Disadvantage
of the Welsh
language in the
administration
of law.

The disadvantages resulting from ignorance of the English language are, however, by no means confined to those engaged in mechanical labour, but affect the whole population in many of the most important relations of social life. I refer, in illustration, to the administration of the law in Wales. As the business of all courts of law and justice must necessarily be conducted in the English language, evidence in the case of those who do not understand English—and they constitute a vast majority of the population—is obtained through the medium of interpretation. I scarcely need observe that, even with the best arrangements, interpretation, as it respects evidence, is only a necessary evil; in translating from one language into another, particularly from an old language like the Welsh into English, there is always a loss in form of expression, or in some other feature which gives a force to one language that cannot always be conveyed in the other. But in Wales, the provision for interpretation in the courts of law is very imperfect, there is not in the method of appointment to the office even in the higher courts—any official or adequate security for the qualifications of the interpreters for the duties they have to render, and in such inferior courts as Petty Sessions the matter is very much left to chance. The result is, that the evidence of Welsh witnesses is obtained under great disadvantages, and with equal liabilities to error. When we add to this, that the juries are at least to the extent of two-

thirds not sufficiently versed in English to follow a chain of evidence or a sustained conversation in that language—that counsel address those juries in a language which they do not understand, and that the chairman at the Quarter Sessions, or the judge at the Assizes sums up in the same language—we may form some estimate of the disadvantages to which ignorance of the English tongue subjects the Welsh people, in the administration of law. We may also find in these features some explanation of the unenviable distinction which verdicts from Welsh juries have attained, and perhaps may admit that the character of the evidence given in law courts in Wales may at least often have a more charitable explanation than that which implies perjury on the part of Welsh witnesses.

No data have hitherto been afforded us for determining with any approach to numerical precision the proportion of the population of Wales using and acquainted with Welsh only to that by which the English language has been adopted as the vernacular. Numerical returns on this subject would indeed be highly valuable, but in their application to many subjects connected with education it would be necessary to receive them with the qualification that “speaking English” does not invariably indicate the capacity of understanding English in an educational point of view. In such towns as Merthyr, Aberdare, and others, where the different races converge, large numbers speak English for the purpose of necessary intercourse with their neighbours, who, beyond the very scanty nomenclature used for this end, are entirely ignorant of that language. Welsh is their vernacular for the fire side, for general conversation, and for all the ordinary purposes of life. They, and in most cases their children, must be treated as speaking Welsh in looking at them as subjects for school instruction, the latter having to contend with all the difficulties that beset education imparted through one language to children using another. This would constitute a separate class, probably not a large one in comparison with the whole population, and would principally be composed of recent emigrants from the agricultural and western districts of the country. There is, however, a much larger class, in which the children are, as to their knowledge of English, in advance of the adult population. In these instances the parents have been longer located in the district. The children are natives of it, or brought there very young, and from intercourse with companions of their own age and other sources they not only are habituated to English in their earliest years, but acquire and make more use of English abroad than they do of Welsh at home. It is here that we may discern the inroads of the dominant language on the ground occupied by the old vernacular tongue of the country, trace the law of progress by which, slowly and imperceptibly, yet inevitably, English must ultimately supersede Welsh, to the extinction of the latter as a spoken language. English is the vernacular tongue of the class to which I am referring. They may speak Welsh in the home of their childhood,

Proportion of
the population
of Wales
ignorant of the
English lan-
guage.

but it is only there that they use it; and when they have left that home, and gone forth to the world, it is to English they have recourse for all the great uses of life, it is in English books they read, it is in English they speak to their children, it is the language of home; Welsh is used only on exceptional occasions. The next generation know English only, unless the Welsh is obtained from other sources than its use within the domestic circle. In the agricultural unions of North Wales, on the contrary, the vernacular or fireside use of the Welsh tongue cannot be regarded as a strictly accurate index to the extent to which a knowledge of the English language prevails among the population generally. Throughout this district the Welsh language is in general use among all classes as the medium of ordinary communication. It is the language of the market place, of the shop, and of domestic life, not only among the labouring but the middle class, though, in a large portion of the latter, a knowledge and ready use of English are very general. Beyond it, however, the whole population may be considered as knowing Welsh only, and the juvenile portion of it as ignorant of English for all purposes of education.

Estimate of
numbers in the
Specimen dis-
trict.

I make these observations, as they serve to show the reservations with which calculations on this subject are to be received, and the wide margin that must, after all, be left for errors. The proportion of the Welsh to the English-speaking portion of the population for all Wales has been variously estimated at two-thirds, seven-tenths, and three-fourths of the whole population. In the North Wales or agricultural portion of my district, of the estimated population in the year 1858 (52,067), there are probably from 46,000 to 47,000 who may be said to speak and know Welsh only, while of the remaining 5,000 a large proportion, amounting to at least two-thirds, though conversant to a greater or less extent with English, use Welsh as their vernacular language. In the South Wales Unions the elements of calculation on this subject become more complicated. In many of the towns in this part of my district the Welsh language holds a kind of divided reign with the English, while in the country districts around, and immediately adjacent to them, the Welsh language is almost exclusively the vernacular tongue. Such is the case in Merthyr, in Aberdare, and in Neath, in all which the Welsh language prevails in one part of the town and English in the other. Indeed, the case of the use of both languages in the same street by different sections of the population is by no means an unfrequent occurrence. Taking the estimated population of the Merthyr Union in 1858 at 99,758, the proportion speaking Welsh, and of which that language is the vernacular tongue, would probably amount to from 74,000 to 77,000. In the Neath Union, which partakes to a greater extent of an agricultural character, the estimated population in 1858 was 59,527, of which the proportion which may be regarded as "Welsh speaking" is from 42,000 to 45,000. The proportions are somewhat different in the two unions; but this is determined by the different composi-

tion of their respective populations, the proportion of skilled to unskilled labour, the less sudden influx of the immigration into one of the two unions, and other features which have been sufficiently indicated in the description which has been given of the character of these districts. I must, however, again observe that these and all other estimates relative to this point must be received with great reservations as to their accuracy. Until statistics are applied to the subject all attempts at calculation can have results only approximatively true.

Notwithstanding the strong opinions expressed by some Welsh writers, many of them occupying a high literary position among their countrymen, in favour of the maintenance of their language, and their undoubting belief in its perpetuity, I must, without entering into the details of a controversy, assume the fact of the continual and necessary progress of the English language among the population of Wales, and, as a consequence, the final extinction of the old language of the country. An extended induction of all the facts of the case confirms this view. In the instance to which I have before adverted, in towns where both Welsh and English are spoken, where Welsh is the vernacular of one part of the population and English of the other, the gain is on the side of the English, before which the Welsh gradually gives way; the process seeming to be that the vernacular Welsh of the parents is exchanged for English in the next generation, while the Welsh is gradually abandoned, and in the third generation is not found. What takes place in the towns is only a reflection of the change which, under influences of the same kind, but more gradual, and therefore less perceptible in their operation, occurs throughout the country at large. Parishes, and even extensive districts, may be pointed out in which the Welsh language was formerly spoken, but where it has now become extinct.* In others, the change from one language to another is now in process of going on, and where it is stimulated by the presence of manufactures or commerce, going on with great rapidity, attended by the same characteristic feature, that while Welsh is the vernacular of the parent, English is the language of the child portion of the population. Such facts show not only the direction but the process of the change, and incontestibly indicate its final issue as it respects the Welsh language. We can respect the feeling in favour of the ancient language of their forefathers, which has prompted even intelligent and educated Welshmen to put forth, as a last resource to secure the perpetuity of the Welsh language, their "bilingual theory;" but such a theory, that a whole population will for all future time keep up two languages where one only is necessary, will be regarded only as a proof of the extent to which national predilections may pervert the judgment. It is neither desirable nor possible, inasmuch as it is in

Gradual
extinction of
the Welsh
language.

* The eastern parishes of nearly all the border counties of Wales furnish proofs of the fact, and illustrations of the process by which it takes place. See also pp. 457, 458.

opposition to the conditions which determine and govern the use of language by man. I have noticed the subject, as it is an index to a state of feeling extensively participated in by some classes in the Principality,—a feeling which, though rapidly dying out, may be presumed to be not without its influence on education in Wales, some traces of which may be found in public schools, which virtually limit their instruction to reading in the Welsh language.

Agencies contributing to this change of language.

It is of importance, in an educational as well as in a more general point of view, to assign to the various causes that bring about this change, their proper share of influence in the work; as it respects the latter, it enables us correctly to estimate the value of the agencies that are employed in effecting the change, to distinguish those that are really promotive of their object from those which are only seemingly so, and, if necessary, to reject such as are useless; and as it regards education, it will assist in determining, in addition to other subjects, the proper means of combating the obstacles to educational progress arising from difference of language. All the facts connected with the change indicate that the primary agencies in the spread of the English language, or rather in its permanent establishment, as a substitute for Welsh, are those which, in various forms, commerce and manufacturing industry, have brought into activity. The requirements of business, in promoting an intercourse with England and Englishmen, the development of the mineral resources of large portions of South Wales, the establishment of manufactures, which have induced Englishmen to settle in their neighbourhood, and more recently the opening of railways, with their increased facilities of communication, are a general enumeration of these agencies. In the cases to which I have above referred, where a substitution of the English for the Welsh language has taken place, as in districts more immediately contiguous to England, the operation of intercourse arising from the necessities of the business of life bringing about the change may be clearly traced. In the manufacturing districts we everywhere meet, not only evidences of the spread of English as a language used by the population, but that English is becoming the vernacular language in the several localities, in proportion to the extent to which the mass of their respective populations have, from the nature of the trade of the locality and other circumstances, intercourse with the great seats of commercial activity in England. In Moumouthshire, in the districts which lie low and which have long had facilities of communication with England, the Welsh language has disappeared; while in the hill districts of the north and north-west, Welsh still retains its predominance as the vernacular, though with the more recent introduction of railways into the district, its maintenance as a spoken language promises to be of comparatively brief duration. In the towns along the sea-coast in Glamorganshire, the English language in some has become, and in others is becoming the vernacular, where formerly Welsh

principally prevailed. In Cardiff, English has become the vernacular tongue of the great mass of the population; in the town of Neath, where I am informed, on competent authority, Welsh was the ordinary medium of communication forty years since, English is now the spoken language of the middle, and of a considerable proportion of the working classes of the town; while in Swansea, the Welsh as a vernacular of any portion of the inhabitants has so far fallen into disuse, that hundreds of the natives of that town are totally ignorant of the old language of the country. The same observation applies to the railway system, which, though of comparatively recent introduction on an extensive scale into Wales, has already achieved changes in the relations of the two languages, which indicate that the railway will take the foremost position among the agencies by which the diffusion of the English language among the whole population of Wales will be accelerated. In the wake of these physical agencies follow the social influences, and among them, in their foremost rank, the school. Its proper position in this work of changing the language of a people, is that of an adjunct, and a most powerful one, to the physical agencies to which I have referred. But we mistake, and over-estimate its influence, if, as is often done, we look at the school as the sole or even the principal agency in the change of a population from the use of one language to that of another; and the error is not without its practical consequences. We have before us, in confirmation of this view, the fact to which I referred above, that the English language establishes itself in those localities in Wales as a sequence of and in proportion to the influences exercised by the material agencies. In many of the parishes of North Wales some of the endowed schools, established in country districts, have been in operation for a long series of years, and yet Welsh is still not less the vernacular language of those districts, not less, perhaps, than it was when these schools were first established. In South Wales there are districts to which a similar observation applies, districts in which schools established among other objects for English instruction have been established for many years, where no adequate result is apparent, so far as the extension of the English language is concerned,—where Welsh is the vernacular tongue, the language in every-day use, and where the Welsh periodical or the Welsh newspaper is still the medium of information and knowledge. In fact, the school in this case is secondary to and dependent on those agencies which, taking their rise in the more pressing, because physical necessities of the community, stimulate and govern social forces, and determine their operation in changing the institutions of a people, and among them that of language.

This conclusion is not without its practical deductions, for while, on the one hand, it shows the futility of all efforts to maintain the perpetuity of the Welsh language, it has not less its lesson of instruction for the very numerous class in Wales who, from laudable motives, but with superficial views of the conditions

Importance of the conclusion as it respects the promotion of education.

on which language is dependent, think they are aiding the dissemination of English by repressing the use of Welsh, who forbid its use in schools, where its introduction would aid the acquirement of English, and who discountenance all attempts for the educational and social improvement of the population through the Welsh language. Thus, education in Wales, has to contend with the obstacles arising from extreme views, both equally conceived in ignorance of the laws which determine the growth and progress of language.

This sketch of the character of the population limited by the nature of this inquiry.

In the preceding observations on the social and moral condition of the district to which the Report refers, I do not profess to furnish a description of the general character of the population, but simply to indicate those features in it which have a bearing on its present educational state, and its educational prospects in the future—the accelerating or retarding forces, which we may look for, either as obstacles or aids in the work of education extension in the Principality. The inquiry into the general character of a people, legitimately comes within the province of the social or moral philosopher—it is at least one for which an education inquiry does not afford sufficient data in order to determine the many and complicated questions which it involves. Thus, as to a feature to which frequent reference is made in the evidence—of the alleged propensity to falsehood among the labouring population, and the prevalence of perjury in courts of justice in Wales,—it would be necessary to take into consideration, in order to arrive at a truthful conclusion on the point, many elements which are beyond the limits of this inquiry. Difference of language, and the character of that spoken by the people, their natural qualities, the influence of a position till recently almost isolated, and other features, constitute elements of such an inquiry which it would be consistent neither with the limits nor object of this report to enter into in detail.

The general conclusion which I draw from this outline of the social condition of the Welsh Specimen district, and it may be said to reflect that of Wales, is, that while the features that mark the character of the population are highly favourable to the prospects of education extension throughout the country, they are at the same time such as to lead me to infer that, in its transition from a simple, to a more complicated social state, in the changes which the development of its resources is bringing with it, the deterioration or elevation of that character will depend on the issue whether, with the increased temptations which higher and more complicated social relations imply, education diffused throughout the whole population will be present to supply those counteracting agencies which make change a real advance towards a higher civilisation.

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF EDUCATION.

Statistics of Day Schools.

The following Table shows the number of public and private day schools from which returns have been obtained, in the several Poor Law Unions in my district; the number of scholars between 3 and 15 years of age belonging to those schools; and the Registrar General's estimate of the population between 3 and 15 years of age in the several Unions in the middle of 1858; and the proportion per cent. of scholars to the estimated population, between those ages, at the period referred to.

TABLE I.

UNIONS.	Schools enumerated in 1858.			Scholars between 3 and 15, enumerated in 1858.						Registrar-General's Estimate of Number of Pupils in Unions between 3 and 15 Years of Age in the middle of 1858.	Centesimal Proportion of Scholars to estimated Population between 3 and 15 Years of Age in 1858.	
	Public.	Private.	Total.	In Public Schools.			In Private Schools.					Total.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.			
Dolgelly -	22	2	24	654	508	1162	18	30	48	1210	3552	34.0
Ffestiniog-	26	3	29	892	730	1622	53	17	70	1692	4956	34.1
*Bala - -	7	0	7	232	168	400	—	—	—	400	1843	21.7
Corwen -	19	10	29	680	535	1215	125	162	287	1502	4472	33.6
†Neath -	55	18	73	2776	2493	5269	187	204	391	5660	18,095	31.3
‡Merthyr Tydfil }	40	51	121	3315	3213	6528	1009	1052	2061	6589	26,607	32.2

In the Report prefixed to the Education Census (1851) p. 28, the proportion of scholars between 3 and 15 years of age to the total population between those years is given as one to $2\frac{2}{3}$. In the above table we have the following proportions for the several Unions in the district:—

Dolgelly	-	-	-	1 to $2\frac{2}{10}$
Ffestiniog	-	-	-	1 to $2\frac{2}{10}$
Bala	-	-	-	1 to $4\frac{2}{3}$
Corwen	-	-	-	1 to $2\frac{2}{10}$
Neath	-	-	-	1 to $3\frac{1}{5}$
Merthyr Tydfil	-	-	-	1 to $3\frac{1}{10}$

This leaves a deficiency in the Welsh Unions as compared with the general proportion of, for Dolgelly .54; Ffestiniog .53; Bala 2.2; Corwen .7; Neath .8; Merthyr Tydfil .7.

* In the Bala Union, one public school was in abeyance for want of a master (number of scholars estimated at 57), and two schools had recently become defunct—cause assigned, want of support. These schools were in rural districts.

† In a few instances, infants and girls schools have been returned as one school in the manufacturing districts, principally in schools connected with works.

‡ The Catholic schools throughout the district made no returns.

Table II.

Table II. shows the per-centage of scholars of all ages (in 1851 and 1858 severally) in day schools, public and private, to the population in each of those years.

TABLE II.

SCHOLARS in WEEK-DAY SCHOOLS, Public and Private, compared with Population.

UNIONS.	Scholars of all Ages in 1851. (Education Census.)	Population in 1851. (Census.)	Scholars of all Ages enumerated in 1858.	Population estimated in 1858.	Per-centage of Scholars to Population in 1851.	Per-centage of Scholars to Population in 1858.
Dolgelley - -	1,094	12,971	1,286	12,971	8·4	9·9
Ffestiniog - -	1,055	16,192	1,775	16,707	6·5	10·7
Bala - - -	458	6,736	423	6,736	6·8	6·3
Corwen - -	1,103	15,418	1,514	15,653	7·1	9·8
Neath - - -	4,445	46,471	5,997	58,527	9·0	10·
Merthyr Tydfil -	4,422	76,804	8,965	99,758	6·7	9·

Fluctuating tenure of certain schools in North Wales.

In forming an estimate of the condition of education from tables like the above, one circumstance should be taken into consideration, that in North Wales the figures denoting the number of schools by no means indicate a permanent provision for the educational requirements of the districts in which they are located. Nothing can, in fact, be more fluctuating or uncertain than the class of public schools, which in the course of this Report I have distinguished as "Subscription Schools." These subscription schools are set on foot by the farmers and labourers in the poorer agricultural districts of North Wales, by small contributions among themselves, of sums varying from 5s. to 10s. a year, according to the circumstances of the subscriber. With the amount thus raised, which rarely exceeds from 10l. to 15l. a year, a schoolmaster is obtained, the school promoters guaranteeing a portion of the teacher's salary, the remainder being made up by chance scholars, or by additional subscriptions if they can be obtained. The class of teachers thus obtained are described in the observations I have made on the "condition of schoolmasters in the rural districts of North Wales." The vocation of schoolmaster with them is merely temporary, and this, added to the uncertainty of support consequent on the poverty of the subscribers, gives the schools of this class a tenure of the most precarious kind. In the small Union of Bala alone, as will be seen from the note at the foot of Table I., I found one school in abeyance and two defunct. In the case of one of the defunct schools, held in a chapel, I was informed that the last master had "left for college." The promoters had another master in view, who was also looking forward to college, and who would be engaged only for some six months. I found a few months subsequently, that the school was still closed, the expectant master not having been able to come. In the other

case, the school went down after some twelve months from want of support. In another Union, a school enumerated at the end of November, was found by me on the 18th of December to have vanished, the explanation given being that the master at the end of the quarter had a situation as collector of local rates offered to him, which would give him 24*l.* a year, and, therefore, gave up his vocation of school-teacher, where he could only calculate on 13*l.* a year. In fact, it may be said of schools not supported by Government aid or endowments in these districts, that their duration from year to year hangs on the chance of a successful struggle with difficulties. Resuscitated as they sometimes are at uncertain intervals, their educational value to the neighbourhood in which they are situated is next to nothing. Some of these schools are called into existence by a neighbouring school exacting the Church Catechism, but a much larger number by the inability of the district to comply with the terms of the Government grant.

This Table shows that an increase, which under the circumstances of the Principality, must be regarded as very considerable, has taken place in the proportion of scholars to the population, in all the Unions, with one exception, of my district. It is thus far a testimony to the activity of the agencies which are at work in the extension of education in Wales, and corroborates statements to that effect made in the evidence. The following tabular arrangement of the proportion of scholars to the population in the years 1851 and 1858 respectively, together with the difference of increase or decrease, will probably be a convenient form of exhibiting the features which mark the progress that has been made in this respect, both in the North and South Wales divisions of the district:—

Education overtakes the progress of population.

UNIONS.	Per-centage of Scholars in 1851.	Per-centage in 1858.	Difference of Per-centage.
Dolgelly - -	8·4	9·9	1·5 (inc.)
Ffestiniog - -	6·5	10·7	4·2
Bala - -	6·8	6·3	·5 (dec.)
Corwen - -	7·2	9·8	2·6 (inc.)
Neath - -	9·0	10·	1·0
Merthyr Tydfil -	6·7	9·	2·3

The greatest progress made towards overtaking increase of population by education is in the Ffestiniog Union, a district not wholly agricultural, but having on its northern boundaries extensive slate quarries, for the population of which much has of late years been done in the way of educational provision, by the establishment of new schools, as well as the improvement and extension of those which previously existed. Viewing the whole of the specimen district as divided into agri-

cultural and manufacturing, we find that the rate of increase in the former exceeds (though very slightly) that of the latter, for while the mean increase for the four Unions of North Wales, taking into account the decrease in Bala Union, is 1·9 per cent., that of the Manufacturing and Mixed Unions in South Wales is 1·6 per cent. In the case of the Bala Union, the school in abeyance for want of a master would have raised its proportion to 7·1, and thus have shown an increase, though a very slight one. It is the most purely agricultural Union in my district, and perhaps, in Wales. The schools in this district are, without an exception, found within a narrow area bordering the Bala Lake, the most populous portion of the Union, while the other parts of the Union are inhabited by a population so widely scattered, as to be unable to provide itself with schools at all. The more densely inhabited section of the Union is, however, not ill provided with schools; but the scattered population bears so large a proportion to the whole that what is gained in the one is more than lost by the deficiency in the other. The increase in the centesimal proportion of scholars in the Merthyr Tydfil Union is, when the circumstances of the district are taken into consideration, one of the most pleasing and remarkable features exhibited by the numbers in the tables. I refer to the description I have given of the social features of the manufacturing districts of South Wales. In no Union in the Principality, in few throughout the kingdom, has there been so rapid an increase of population; and this takes place, not by a regular influx, but by sudden starts, at intervals when the discovery of mineral resources on new spots opens fresh fields for enterprise and speculation, which give rise to equally sudden demands for labour, and invite large masses of the unskilled labouring population from the agricultural districts of West Wales, the bordering English counties, and Ireland, to settle in these regions. Under social conditions, so adverse to educational progress as must result from this aggregation of Welsh, English, and Irish labourers, much must have been done to maintain the educational status of the district, but so far to have improved on it as to raise the proportion of the population under education from, in round numbers, one in 15 to one in 11, is a fact which bears honourable testimony to the activity of the agencies that have been engaged in education extension. Among these then I am compelled in justice to notice, as second to none, the aid rendered by the Sunday Schools of the district. As a preparatory influence, the agency of the Sunday School in this work has been second to no other in importance and value. It has kept within the circle of its action the large section of the population which is Welsh, and saved it from the contaminating influences which arise from the sudden transfer of men from the simplicity of the agricultural life to a populous district, and its accompanying temptations; it has instilled into this portion of the community a taste for reading, and other intellectual habits most favourable, as preparatories to the diffusion of education. I have, indeed, little hesitation in expressing my conviction that the education of the day school

in this district would not have been able to show its present results had it not been for the labours of the Sunday-School teacher in preparing the soil for its reception. The provision may have been made, but there would have been wanting an appreciation of the value of instruction in the public mind which would have deprived it of many of its fruits.

The number of scholars at school compared with the whole population is stated (Report, Educational Census, p. 28), to be in the proportion of one to $8\frac{1}{3}$. In the following table, the proportion of scholars to the estimated population (1858), in the several Unions is, compared with the general proportion, 1 to $8\frac{1}{3}$, and the difference shown in another column. Comparison of results with $8\frac{1}{3}$ of the population.

UNIONS.	Proportion of Scholars in each Union to estimated Population in 1858.	Difference between Proportion in each Union, and 1 in $8\frac{1}{3}$.
Dolgelly - -	1 in 10·	1·7
Ffestiniog - -	" 9·4	1·1
Bala - -	" 15·9	7·6
Corwen - -	" 10·1	1·8
Neath - -	" 9·9	1·6
Merthyr Tydfil - -	" 11·1	2·8

The centesimal proportion of the population under education, seems from Table II. to be nearly equal in the agricultural and in the manufacturing and mixed Unions, the trifling difference being in favour of the latter. The average proportion per cent. of scholars for the North Wales Unions is 9·2, and for the South Wales Unions 9·5. This fact is important, as it corrects, so far as Wales is concerned, a very prevalent impression, that education in the manufacturing is much better provided for than in the agricultural districts. In the latter, the educational provision is deficient not so much in amount, as in the equality of its distribution.

The following Tables show the average daily attendance of scholars respectively in public and private schools, together with the per-centage of daily attendance as compared with the number of scholars belonging to the school. The public schools are given in each Union of the district, but as there are comparatively few private schools in North Wales, it will sufficiently show the distinctive features of attendance to classify these schools under the more general heads "agricultural and manufacturing Unions." Tables of per-centage of scholars in average daily attendance.

PUBLIC WEEK-DAY SCHOOLS.

UNIONS.	Number of Schools that made Returns of Average Daily Attendance.	Number of Scholars belonging to the foregoing Schools.	Number of Scholars in Average Daily Attendance.	Per-centage of Scholars in Average Daily Attendance.
Bala - - -	6	370	279	75·4
Ffestiniog - -	22	1,501	1,161	77·3
Dolgelly - -	17	971	720	74·1
Corwen - -	13	892	635	71·2
Neath - - -	35	2,884	2,046	70·9
Merthyr Tydfil -	28	4,956	3,684	74·3

The common per-centage of average daily attendance for the agricultural portion of the district is 74·5. The difference in the percentages of these unions does not seem to be attributable to any general cause, unless it be features more or less favourable to regular attendance in the location of the schools in the several Unions. In the Ffestiniog Union, the schools are very generally situated in villages to which a considerable population have easy access—as at the quarries, at the village of Ffestiniog, Beddgelert, and Maentwrog. The local features of the district in which the principal schools in the Bala Union are found, are also favourable to regular attendance. As compared with the two South Wales Unions, those of North Wales present a favourable contrast, the latter being represented by the per-centage above given, of 74·5, and the former 72·2.

Comparison of table with general average attendance.

Comparing the numbers in the above table with the general per-centage of attendance for the whole country, we have the following results, as it respects the Unions constituting this district :—

UNIONS.	Per-centage of Average Attendance.	Difference as compared with the general Average of Public Schools, or 79 per cent.
Dolgelly - - -	75·4	3·6
Ffestiniog - -	77·3	1·7
Bala - - -	74·1	4·9
Corwen - - -	71·2	7·8
Neath - - -	70·9	8·1
Merthyr Tydfil -	74·3	4·7

Or, compared with the common average for the Agricultural Unions, it would be a difference, less than the general average of 4·2, and in the southern Unions of 6·4 per cent.

This per-centage of average attendance, which really represents the difference between the amount of the children in a population under education, and the apparent amount as exhibited by the school books, is one of the dark phases in the question of education. What is it in point of fact tantamount to? That out of every one hundred children on the school books, a number is always absent, which is indicated by the difference between the number in the per-centage of attendance column and 100, *e.g.*, in the Neath Union 29, in the Dolgelley Union about 26 children, out of every 100 who belong to those schools are absent. This absence may arise either from the withdrawal of the children from school for a continuous period of greater or less duration, or from irregular attendance carried over the year or throughout the whole school period. The former is most generally the case in North Wales, where children are withdrawn from school at the most pressing seasons for agricultural operations, and the latter in the manufacturing and mixed districts. In an educational point of view there is a great difference in these two forms of deficient attendance; and there can be no doubt that the irregular attendance of the South Wales Unions is a greater impediment to the progress of education, than the more systematic withdrawal which is the practice in the agricultural Unions of North Wales. The withdrawal of a child from school for a stated period of two or three months in the year, when he returns and attends regularly, is a far less evil than a defective and uncertain attendance continually kept up, which not only interferes with the child's progress, but is attended with a dissipation of mind most unfavourable to its reception of learning, while it is in school. It appears too, that the average resulting from irregular attendance is considerably greater than from temporary withdrawal; the average per-centage for the North Wales Unions being 74·5 to 72·2 in South Wales, and this too, notwithstanding the greater area from which a school in the agricultural districts draws its supply of scholars, and the obstacles which the mountainous character of the country offers to easy access at particular seasons of the year. In the manufacturing districts irregular attendance is, next to early withdrawal, the greatest obstacle which education has to encounter; it exists to a greater extent in schools contiguous to or connected with large works, especially in country districts, than in towns. Its more immediate cause is, the employment of children in aiding in such domestic duties as carrying food to the father or other members of the family in the works, and the superintendence of younger children at home during the absence of the mother. But this employment is less the result of necessity than of the want of appreciation by the parents, and the mother particularly, of the importance of regularity of attendance at school to the educational progress of the child. Throughout the manufacturing districts irregularity of attendance was the subject of deep and constant complaint with the masters of public and private schools, more particularly of schools connected with or in the vicinity of works. I here give extracts to illustrate the character of the irregularity referred to. The master of a National School connected with one

of the most extensive works in the Neath Union portion of my district observes:—"In addition to early withdrawal, education " is most injuriously affected by the irregular attendance of the " children in school. They are not only frequently absent, but " they come in in the morning long after the hour for com- " mencing; and I am obliged to let numbers of them out half an " hour before the close of the school, to carry their fathers' dinners " to the works." Another school teacher in a country school contiguous to works says:—"The scholars attend very irregularly, " and the most trifling circumstance is made an occasion by the " mothers to keep the children from school." The master of a British school in the same neighbourhood says:—"Irregular atten- " dance, which is so much the practice here, interferes greatly " with the progress of the scholars, and renders valueless a great " portion of our labours." To the same effect is the observation of the mistress of a girls' school, of the mixed class, at Merthyr Tydfil:—"The slightest convenience to themselves is sufficient to " induce parents to keep their children at home. They seem to " have no notion of the loss from absence to the child, nor the " inconvenience it occasions to the school teacher. So far is this " from being the case, that any attempt on the part of the teacher " to enforce more regular attendance would, I think, be attended " with the withdrawal from the school of many of the scholars." Statements to the same effect might be multiplied to a great extent, were it necessary. The evil is, as may be seen from the extracts given above, equally the subject of complaint among teachers of Works schools where the school fee must be paid whether the children attend or not, and of schools where a week's absence may obtain exemption from the school fee for that period; proving that the saving of the fee or inability is not the cause of absence, so far, at least, as this class of schools is concerned.

This important subject of school attendance may be exhibited under a somewhat different aspect by the following table, which shows the per-centage of scholars in public schools that attended school for the several periods, indicates by the columns denoting the number of days of attendance:—

UNIONS.	Number of Schools from which Returns have been obtained.	Total Number of Scholars belonging to the foregoing Schools.	Proportion (per cent.) of the foregoing Scholars who have attended School the under-mentioned Number of Days during the past Year.				
			Less than 50 Days.	50 Days and less than 100 Days.	100 and less than 150 Days.	150 to 200 Days inclusive.	Above 200 Days.
Dolgelly -	15	908	9·7	8·7	18·6	27·1	27
Ffestiniog -	15	1147	19·2	27·7	19·9	19·8	17·7
Corwen -	6	661	23·6	23·7	23·6	25·1	12·1
Neath -	20	1910	25·0	21·6	23·2	20·3	10·1
Merthyr Tydfil	22	4153	35·1	15·8	15·5	23·4	16·9

The effectual remedy for this educational evil is, like that of Remedies for early withdrawal from school, to be found in the gradual progress irregular attendance, of that higher intelligence, which will make parents better acquainted with the conditions necessary to be complied with, in order to secure for their children the advantages of sound education, as well as lead them to a better appreciation of the value of that education. All other means are valuable only so far as they promote this end by their influence in producing among parents a sense of the importance of education, and that of regular attendance, as a condition to securing it. Among these means I value none more highly than Prize Associations. Of their efficacy in checking early withdrawal, as will be seen from a subsequent portion of this Report, I have no opinion; but the promotion of a more regular attendance in public schools is, I think, within their legitimate province; and if they were to concentrate their energies on this point, they would, no doubt, with other adjuncts to some of which I refer, contribute much to the prevention of this evil; and from indications at a meeting of the Prize Association in the western district of Glamorganshire, I believe such will eventually be the case. In some public schools an excellent plan has been adopted, of distributing prizes for the most regular attendance over short periods, *e. g.*, quarterly. A distribution of prizes on this system to the scholars in the National School at Ystradgunlais came under my observation; and I had opportunities, from being present, of observing its beneficial influence on both pupils and parents. If Prize Associations were to recommend such an arrangement, as an additional feature to their own general or annual distribution of rewards, in all the schools connected with them, there can be no doubt that its adoption would be attended with highly satisfactory results.

PRIVATE WEEK-DAY SCHOOLS.

—	Number of Schools that made Returns of Average Attendance.	Number of Scholars belonging to the foregoing Schools.	Average Number of Scholars in Daily Attendance.	Per-centage of Scholars in Average Daily Attendance.
Agricultural Unions -	17	367	328	89·4
Mixed Agricultural and Manufacturing (Neath) -	17	425	354	85·6
Manufacturing (Merthyr) -	71	1906	1669	87·5

Compared with the general per-centage of scholars in average daily attendance, the Table above shows a difference (less) of 1·6 per-centage for the agricultural Unions of North Wales; 5·4 for the Neath (mixed) Union; and 3·5 per cent. for the Merthyr Tydfil private schools (manufacturing) Union.*

* The per-centages in the table are probably somewhat higher than they would be for the schools which are attended solely by children of the working classes, as in the mixed schools there is a considerable infusion of the middle class element.

School accommodation in public schools.

The following Table shows the per-centage of excess of school accommodation in public week-day schools as compared with the average attendance, in the several Unions of the district.

PUBLIC WEEK-DAY SCHOOLS.

UNIONS.	Number of Schools that made Returns as to School Accommodation.	Number of Children in Average Daily Attendance.	Number of Children for whom School Accommodation is provided at 8 square feet for each Scholar.	Per-centage of Excess of School Accommodation as compared with Average Attendance.
Bala - -	5	268	463	42·12
Ffestiniog - -	14	848	1570	46
Dolgelley - -	15	643	1188	45·87
Corwen - -	10	461	830	44·45
Neath - -	29	2124	2522	15·78
Merthyr Tydfil	21	2849	3883	26·64

This Table exhibits the extraordinary result, that in the agricultural Unions, where the increase of population is so slow as in some cases to be inappreciable, the school accommodation is considerably in excess of the average attendance; while in the manufacturing and mixed Unions of South Wales, where the increase of population is unusually great, the per-centage of excess is not only considerably less, but is not equal to the increase of population. The mean per-centage of (excess) accommodation in the agricultural unions is 44·6 per cent.; in the manufacturing unions it is about 21·2 per cent.; the increase of the population over the decennial period 1841-51, in the former being only 1·17 per cent., while in the latter it is, over the same period, 34·8 per cent.* In the Neath Union the per-centage of excess of accommodation is only 15·8, while the decennial increase of population is 42·7 per cent. As it relates to the North Wales Unions, the results in this Table illustrate the remarks I shall have occasion to offer on the subject of school buildings erected with the aid of Government grants. They, at least, show that, in North Wales, public schools are erected on a scale beyond any requirements arising from the increase of the population. In fact, schools in that district are established and school-rooms built on a principle altogether erroneous; the school promoters aim at making the schools centre points of education to extensive districts, whereas the physical character of the country, and the distribution of the population over its area, point to a greater number of schools of, perhaps, humbler pretensions, as the desideratum for supplying what is the great deficiency in the condition of education in North Wales,—the more equal distri-

* *i. e.* In registration counties; in the county "proper" of Merioneth there is a decrease of population in the period 1841-51.

bution of schools over the country. The remarks which I shall offer on the state of school buildings in the manufacturing portion of my district will be found to have their reflexion in the results given in the above Table.

The following Table shows the denominational character, or otherwise, of the Public Schools that made returns under the head "Religious Denomination, if any, with which the school is connected."

—	Number of Schools that made Returns on this head.	Church or National.	Non-denominational.	Denominational.
North Wales Unions -	46	35	7	4
South Wales Unions -	60	29	26	5

Religious Denomination of Public Schools.

A considerable number of schools which have elsewhere been incidentally described as "Church," or "Non-denominational," &c. schools, have omitted making returns under the head to which these figures refer.

The following Tables show respectively the number of schools established, and the number of school buildings erected, before and subsequently to 1851, with the total number of schools, severally in the North and South Wales Unions, that made returns on this head.

Establishment of Schools and erection of School Buildings.

ESTABLISHMENT OF SCHOOLS.

—	Number of Schools that made Returns of Date of Establishment.	Established before 1851.	Established since 1851.
North Wales Unions -	47	30	17
South Wales Unions -	45	17	28

ERECTION OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

—	Number of Schools that made Returns on this head.	Erected before 1851.	Erected since 1851.
North Wales Unions -	37	9	8
South Wales Unions -	38	17	21

Teachers.

The following Table shows the number of trained and untrained teachers—of certificated, registered, pupil, and assistant teachers,—and of paid and unpaid monitors, distinguishing males and females, in the schools which have made returns to this head of inquiry.

	Number of Schools that made Returns as to Teachers.	Number of Scholars belonging to the foregoing Schools.			Masters and Mistresses.				Number holding Certificates of Merit from Privy Council.	Number of Registered Teachers.	Number of Government Pupil-teachers and Assistants.		Number of Monitors.					
					Trained.		Un-trained.						Paid.	Unpaid.				
		Males.	Females.	Total.	Masters.	Mistresses.	Masters.	Mistresses.	Males.	Mistresses.	Males.	Females.			Males.	Females.		
North Wales Unions -	54	1821	1663	3484	23	1	18	22	12	—	1	—	26	3	1	4	75	32
South Wales Unions -	59	3937	3736	7673	24	10	11	21	17	6	—	—	38	35	4	2	86	52

I have every reason to think that in the North Wales Schools, under the head "Untrained Mistresses" are included the sewing mistresses, who attend the schools at stated periods, such as one or two afternoons a week, for the special purpose of teaching needlework, as described in another part of the Report.

The Welsh training institutions for schoolmasters are noticed elsewhere in this Report (p. 536). There is no provision for the training of schoolmistresses in the Principality.

Poor Law Union and Factory Schools.

In this district I found two Poor Law Union Schools only. In the North Wales Unions, the pauper children in the Union Workhouses were sent to public schools in the several neighbourhoods of the workhouses, and this arrangement was said, by parties competent to give an opinion on the subject, to work satisfactorily. There was only one school in the district coming under the Factory regulations.

The only Reformatory school in the district was opened at Neath at the time that this inquiry was going on.

Early withdrawn from School.

The following Tables show the centesimal proportions of scholars in the several periods of age indicated at the heads of the columns respectively to the total number of scholars "belonging to the schools," and to the "total number of" scholars present in the school at the time of the returns being made. In the first Table the Neath and Merthyr Tydfil Unions are shown distinctively, but in the second table they are given as one.

CENTESIMAL PROPORTION of SCHOLARS present to the Number of Scholars "belonging to the School" in each of the under-mentioned Periods of Age.

SCHOOLS.	No. of Schools that made Returns of Scholars' Ages.	No. of Scholars belonging to the School.		Under 3.		From 3 to 6 inclusive.		Above 6 and not more than 7.		Above 7 and not more than 8.		Above 8 and not more than 9.		Above 9 and not more than 10.		Above 10 and not more than 11.		Above 11 and not more than 12.		Above 12 and not more than 13.		Above 13 and not more than 14.		Above 14 and not more than 15.		Above 15.			
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
North Wales (Agricultural) Unions	59	2107	1636	66	91	10.7	13.3	8.8	9.1	9.5	9.7	11	10.7	10.7	10.1	9.2	7.9	7.5	7.8	7.1	5.7	4.2	3.9	1.8	1.8	2.8	1		
North (Mixed Agr. & Man.) Union	34	1495	1333	3	4.7	22.6	23.9	12.5	11.5	14.4	11.2	11.4	9.6	9.9	6.7	6.3	6.5	3.6	5.5	2.7	4.5	1.6	2.1	1.6	2	7.1	.7		
Merthyr Tydfil (Manufact.) Union	23	2101	2143	2.5	2.6	19.9	23.3	12.5	9.3	15.4	11.9	12.1	9.1	10.3	9.7	8.3	9	4.4	6	2.8	5.5	2	3.3	.9	1.9	1.1	.9		

CENTESIMAL PROPORTION to the "Total Number of Scholars present" in each of the under-mentioned Periods of Age.

SCHOOLS.	No. of Schools that made Returns of Scholars' Ages.	No. of Scholars belonging to the School.		Under 3.		From 3 to 6 inclusive.		Above 6 and not more than 7.		Above 7 and not more than 8.		Above 8 and not more than 9.		Above 9 and not more than 10.		Above 10 and not more than 11.		Above 11 and not more than 12.		Above 12 and not more than 13.		Above 13 and not more than 14.		Above 14 and not more than 15.		Above 15.			
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
North Wales Unions	53	1772	1341	7.9	1.1	12.7	16.2	10.5	11.1	11.3	11.1	13.1	13	12.7	13.2	10.9	9.6	9	9.5	8.4	7	5	4.8	2.1	2.2	3.4	1.2		
North and Merthyr Tydfil Unions	59	3535	3137	3	3.8	23.1	26.1	13.8	11.2	16.6	12.9	13.1	10.3	11.2	8.4	8.3	8.9	4.6	6.5	3.1	5.6	2.1	3.5	1.3	2.1	1.3	.92		

Consequences
of early with-
drawal exem-
plified in the
state of educa-
tion.

These proportions are in another form, a statement of the case of "early withdrawal from school." They embody facts which, when maturely considered, tend to check any congratulation on our part on the progress of education in this country, for they exhibit the spectacle of results insignificant in comparison with the vast education machinery employed in their production,—of energy wasted and of labour robbed of half its fruits. That this description is not too highly coloured will be apparent to any one who considers what a large proportion of the children represented as being in school are there at an age only when the mind is exclusively occupied in gathering the preliminary materials to its training, when mental impressions are obliterated almost concurrently with the cession of their repetition; while at the period at which the work of education really begins, from ten to twelve years of age, we have in the school only the small proportion of 6·8 per cent., and above that age, from twelve to fourteen, the proportion is still lower. The foundation is laid with much cost and labour, but the superstructure is not raised; the ground is prepared and the seed sown, but the fruits are not gathered in.

In schools.

But it is not so much within my province to discuss the general features of this question as to point out its results on the state of education in the district to which this inquiry extends. In some of the manufacturing districts of South Wales early withdrawal from school is so rapidly on the increase that it threatens to render abortive all efforts for imparting the benefits of education to the labouring classes. This is particularly the case in neighbourhoods in which tin works have been much on the increase of late years; there child labour is more in demand than it is in iron or other smelting works, and employment for children can be found as early as nine or even eight years of age. In localities in which new works have been opened, in consequence of the demand for labour tending as it often does to exceed the supply, the labour of children of very tender age is called into requisition. In one locality in the Neath Union where there were five schools, with an aggregate number of scholars amounting to 280, I found eleven children only above twelve years of age, and of these three were girls learning to read, and two boys, the children of farmers and shopkeepers, who had come to the schools for the purpose of instruction with the view of qualifying themselves for situations of which they were in expectation. Most of these schools had been long established, and I was at some pains to ascertain the amount of information possessed by the young men of the district from eighteen to twenty-two years of age. I could scarcely trace a vestige of their having been once in a school beyond the mere recollection of the fact, and that after one or two years instruction they had, to use their own phraseology, "left school for the works." A clumsy handwriting in which every letter attested that the penman had to tax his memory for its shape before forming it, reading accomplished by the aid of spelling, were all, even in the most favourable cases, that remained of the

school instruction they had received. Wherever there was any amount of information beyond this I found it had been obtained in the Sunday school, and had therefore more or less reference to religious knowledge. A highly intelligent man in the district, who himself was a schoolmaster, said "Education in this neighbourhood is in a very low state, the children are taken from school so very young that they have no time to digest anything they learn, and during the time they are in school they attend very irregularly." In another district in the same Union, in the neighbourhood of extensive iron and tin works, I found schools numbering from seventy to a hundred scholars each with only one or two children above ten years of age, the great mass being under ten. In some of these schools the school work was almost brought to a standstill from a deficiency of pupil-teachers, a master often teaching or endeavouring to teach 80 or 100 scholars either with no aid or only with such aid as could be rendered by an elder pupil in hearing a less advanced class read. On inquiring into the cause of this inadequacy in the teaching power, I was informed by the masters that they could not persuade the parents to allow their children to remain in school up to the required age for pupil-teachers, as their salaries were not equal to the wages which they could earn in the "works" by manual labour. In seven large and important schools instances were furnished to me of this deficiency. The masters, who were meritorious and faithful teachers, dwelt strongly on the expedients they were compelled to have recourse to in order to obtain such aid as to enable them to conduct their schools with any approximation to efficiency. One master informed me that he had on two occasions been disappointed after devoting much time and labour to the preparation of two scholars, by their being taken away from school just as they were qualified by age to become pupil-teachers. In one instance the master had persuaded a youth, fourteen years of age, to assist him on condition of his giving him private instruction in mensuration. In another case the master of a school of some seventy scholars had called in the aid of a sister to assist him in teaching. It is due to these men to say that they were actuated in doing this solely by a sense of duty, for pecuniary benefit they had none.

To other features, consequent on early withdrawal, we must then add the frequent want of adequate teaching power in public schools in the manufacturing districts of South Wales. This deficiency is painfully apparent in schools in the immediate neighbourhood of tin works and collieries in country districts. It follows from this, that to the short duration and early age of the school period of children must be added the evils of imperfect instruction while in the school. It is almost superfluous to remark, that the attempt by a single master or mistress, however competent, to teach seventy or eighty scholars without aid must be a failure, and not the less so even where an inexperienced and unprepared elder scholar, as is sometimes the case, is called upon to improvise the office of monitor without a single qualification for its duties. Yet

this is of frequent occurrence in schools in the vicinity of the works. In inspected and uninspected schools the masters had the assistance of mere children only, from ten to twelve years of age, who, under the name of monitors, served simply to perpetuate their own imperfections by transmitting them to others. In a few instances in which the schools did not avail themselves of grants to pupil-teachers, monitors were paid by the proprietors or company, but they were generally young, and were removed when their earnings out of school exceeded their salaries as monitors. As they did not pass the ordeal of an examination, their qualifications were often inadequate as they were not unfrequently selected by the masters on no other ground than that they were the "best assistance they could get under the circumstances." The result generally stated is the tendency of early withdrawal to keep the teaching power within its influence at the lowest ebb. In schools under inspection not only is there a deficiency of pupil-teachers, but those that are found in them are generally in the first or second year of their apprenticeship only. As soon as they begin to overcome the difficulties of their noviciateship, and to acquire experience in the practice of teaching, they exchange the school for the works. Under these circumstances the pupil-teacher system has all the objectionable features urged against the teaching of children by children, without the counterbalancing advantages which are afforded by the continuance of the teachers over their full term, while the labours of the masters in their special instruction and the "gratuities" in compensation are to a considerable extent wasted. As it regards quality, I found that the teaching aid in these schools was almost invariably below the average standard.

Defective teaching a consequence of the early age of school assist-

This feature in the educational machinery of public schools has a large share of influence in contributing to the very defective state of the elementary branches of the school course throughout the South Wales Unions. One of the general conclusions which I arrived at from my examination of schools, was that they were deficient in such mechanical branches as reading, spelling, and the elementary rules of arithmetic, in the meaning of words, and of English generally. I attribute this principally, if not solely, to the fact, that the assisting staff, whether pupil-teachers or monitors, are too young. In Wales, instruction in these branches of education is beset with greater difficulties than in schools in England, inasmuch as in by far the greater proportion of cases the scholar has to learn in a language which is not his vernacular tongue. Words have to be translated, meanings have to be construed into Welsh by explanation or description, and other processes have to be gone through in order to impart a sufficient knowledge of English to enable the pupil to proceed with the work of the school. Yet this, which I submit is one of the most difficult and most delicate duties which a teacher can fulfil, demanding an amount of judgment and discrimination which considerable experience can alone give, is assigned to assistants, who are themselves children, as the duties

of teaching the elementary classes is usually assigned to the pupil-teacher or monitor. Without entering here into the general question of the adaptation of the pupil-teacher system to the particular course of instruction which ought to be pursued in schools in Welsh-speaking districts, I think, from the difficulties thrown around elementary teaching by difference of language, that a class of instructors of more mature age and experience than pupil-teachers would aid much towards the improvement of the elementary branches in the schools of Wales. I refer, in confirmation of these views, to the boys' school at Dowlais, where assistant masters have been substituted for pupil-teachers, one of the features to which I attribute the successful educational results which that institution exhibits.

Great differences of opinion exist in this district, as elsewhere, on the remedial measures that should be adopted with a view to the removal of this admitted evil. They may be said to range from the advocacy of prevention by direct legislative action to abandoning all efforts, and leaving its cure to the progress of public opinion and the spread of general intelligence. In considering how far the various suggestions put forth for doing away with early withdrawal are applicable to this district, it is, I think, necessary to determine its cause—whether it is to be traced to the poverty, to the improvidence, or to the indifference of the classes among which it prevails. As to the two former causes, I refer to the description I have given of the moral and social condition of the population of the manufacturing districts of South Wales, and cite a corroboratory passage from a Paper—descriptive of the moral and social condition of this district,—read at the Birmingham meeting of the Association for the Promotion of Social Science (1857), on “Early Withdrawal” :—

Difference of opinions as to remedial measures.

“There is one feature in connexion with the wages of this district to which I would call special attention, as it bears intimately on this inquiry. I refer to the regularity of wages. In the copper works, which are the great staple manufactures of the district, the rate of wages is almost uniform. For fifteen or twenty years together there has scarcely been a fluctuation. The demand for labour is regular but progressive, and the wages have a steadiness which causes the copperman's weekly earnings to approximate to the character of a fixed salary. In a social and moral point of view the features that mark the character of the population are highly favourable. As a general rule they are industrious, sober, and provident. A very considerable proportion of the working population are their own landlords, inhabiting cottages built by themselves on leases of lives and years at small ground rents. These cottages are neat, clean, and in almost every case furnished with a regard to comfort, which is by no means perceptible, so generally at least, in the manufacturing districts of England. In the town of Swansea, with a population in 1851 of 31,000, there are fourteen benefit building societies, principally supported by the working classes, the monthly subscriptions in which amount to 1,500*l*. One society alone, since 1845, has ad-

vanced for building purposes 13,000*l.* As means of religious instruction, there are attached to the numerous dissenting chapels with which the district abound, Sunday schools. The churches have also their Sunday schools. In these schools religious instruction, out of the towns, is given in the Welsh language. They are attended by the great bulk of the population, not only by the juveniles, but by persons from eighteen to twenty-five years of age. The instruction given in the Bible and upper classes is on the mutual principle, each class being led by some elderly man who has had opportunities of reading on Scripture subjects. The instruction is carried out to an extent beyond what is given in the ordinary Sunday schools in England. I call particular attention to the fact that young persons avail themselves extensively of the advantages of Sunday school instruction, and after they have ceased to attend the day school both they and the parents seem to think it a breach of duty to omit punctual attendance at the school on Sunday."

Causes of early withdrawal.

It would therefore appear that, so far as this district is concerned, early withdrawal from schools is not to be attributed to the poverty of the parents; nor to their being under the necessity, from low wages, to obtain the aid of their children in providing subsistence for their families; nor to improvidence, or other causes of inability in the population. I do not say that such causes may not exist, but they are partial in their operation; and however much they may aggravate the result they do not account for the phenomenon. There remains then but one general cause,—the want of appreciation by the parents of the importance to the future welfare of their children,—of education being carried out beyond the time at which they are at present withdrawn from school. I think it important, with a view to estimate the value of efforts which are at present being put forth in South Wales for counteracting early withdrawal, to ascertain the actual state of feeling of the classes among which it is found. It appears to be not so much a simple want of appreciation of the value of education as a low estimate of what education consists in, combined with a notion always much strengthened by the prospect of immediate pecuniary advantages resulting from the children's labour, that as much additional learning as may be required can be obtained hereafter as occasion for it may arise. It is not correct, so far as the South Wales districts are concerned, to speak of early withdrawal as originating in the parents' disregard or neglect of their children's welfare. It is not a vice or moral delinquency that we have to deal with, but a state of opinion. The parents think that they are discharging a duty to themselves and families in withdrawing their children from school at an early age when their labour becomes remunerative. In the course of this inquiry I have visited colliery districts in which I found the population strictly moral,—the heads of families serious, thinking, and even reading men, almost every individual having associated himself to some religious denomination in the neighbourhood, yet in these districts, where sobriety and general good conduct were character-

istics of the population, where the cottage was well furnished, the children clad with an evident regard to their comfort, and a well-dressed population on Sundays frequented their respective places of worship,—early withdrawal is a practice so prevalent that I found in a neighbouring day school of seventy scholars only three children in school above ten years of age. In the course of further inquiry I ascertained, that the parents entertain honestly the conviction that in adopting this course they were discharging a duty to their children. Their reasoning was in effect that after giving them as much schooling as was required for their sphere of life, they ought to lose no time in “putting them in a way of earning a livelihood.”

Strenuous efforts have been made in the South Wales sub-districts for counteracting the evils of early withdrawal. In advert-
Efforts for counteracting early withdrawal.
 ing to those efforts, I shall first notice the prize-scheme associations established by the proprietors and other persons connected with mines, iron, and other smelting works. Their object is to present inducements to parents to extend the period of school training by prizes offered to scholars who have attained a certain age after submitting to competency examination. Two associations of this kind are in operation in this district, one for the Western division of Glamorgan and a portion of Carmarthenshire, and the other for the Eastern division of Glamorgan and the adjacent mining districts of Monmouthshire. Both were established in 1857. From the recent date of these institutions I am precluded from other means of judging of their success than general observations on their adaptation to the removal of the evil against which they are directed. The association relies upon the influence of prizes varying in value from 5*s.* to 4*l.* or 5*l.* in inducing parents to permit their children to remain in school over a period of one or two additional years. The prize must influence the parents, either simply by its pecuniary value or by the influence of the opinion of a higher on a subordinate class, as to the importance of extending the school period of the children of the latter. But the pecuniary value of a prize even of 4*l.* or 5*l.* can have little influence when put in the balance against the child's earning at least 3*s.* or 4*s.* per week. Nor can the other assumption be reasonably expected to have much weight with the labouring portion of the population whose notions of supposed duty to their families are so strongly backed up by the prospect of immediate gain in the shape of an increase of income amounting in the aggregate to at least from 7*l.* to 10*l.* a year. It is not with admitted parental neglect, with an acknowledged dereliction of duty that the association has to deal, but with a state of opinion which leads indeed to mistaken duty, where conviction, not the influence of authority or station, can alone produce any results. I believe one of the great mistakes, into which those who hope so much from prize schemes fall, consists in looking upon the case too much as one of parental apathy and neglect of children's welfare—not of a mistaken notion of duty, as an affair of the heart,—to cure which it is only necessary to oppose the influence of example,—whereas it

—
 “Prize schemes.”

is an affair in which the judgment must be convinced in order to perceive that duty lies in the path which the labouring classes are recommended to take.

Partial influ-
ence of
"Prize
schemes."

Looking at the prize scheme in the most favourable point of view, it seems probable that its influence will not extend beyond that more reflective section of the industrial classes who look forward to fitting their children for higher positions in life than they themselves occupy. But it is evident that in this case it acts upon the class least in need of artificial inducements to keep their children in school. The great mass of the unskilled-labour class are still untouched by its influence, and it is from it that early withdrawal swells its ranks—this is the class which gives to the social body its character of enlightenment or of ignorance.

Opinions of
School-teachers
on "Prize
schemes."

The remarks which I have offered on this subject, based on evidence, and my personal observation of the social condition of the district to which it is proposed to apply the prize scheme, are also confirmed by the experience of a class of men whose opinions, from their position and opportunities of gathering the feelings of the working classes, are, above all others, the most competent to judge of the practical operation of the scheme as a check on early withdrawal, and must therefore carry with them great weight. I refer to the masters of the public schools of the district. After two years' experience of its working, the masters of the schools of the Swansea and Neath districts, at a meeting held in April last, generally concurred in a resolution—embodied in their minutes, and directed to be forwarded to the Secretary of the West Glamorgan Prize Scheme Association, to the effect that—while the prize scheme was unjust in its operation, as it concerned the masters of schools, it did not accomplish its professed object of early withdrawal. Appended to the resolution was an expression of opinion that the money raised for the support of the Prize Association might, by a different application of it, subserve more useful educational purposes.

Tendency to
induce teachers
to give undue
attention to
elder
scholars.

Another objection urged by practical teachers in Glamorganshire against this scheme, is the strong inducement it holds forth to masters of public schools to devote greater attention to the elder scholars to the neglect of the younger. No opportunity has been afforded to me, during my inquiry, of ascertaining how far this objection is borne out by facts, but I may observe that it has in its nature so much force as to be entitled to the most serious consideration. I give it, with an objection of a similar character, in the words of an experienced master, whose scholars have been successful competitors for prizes given by a prize scheme association. "It (the prize scheme) has a tendency to make the school-masters attend to the candidates and to neglect the other parts of the school. The teachers also dislike it, as it subjects their schools to invidious comparisons, founded on accident. I may have one boy to go in for a 3*l.* prize, but he in the meantime gets a situation, while a boy belonging to another school may be retained in school, from no situation offering itself. He gets the prize, and the

master the glory. In this case the prize is not founded on any educational considerations by which the school would be properly tested, but on accident."

In some of the Works schools in South Wales, an admirable practice has been adopted of appointing the scholars who have made the greatest progress in the schools to a higher order of employments, such as office clerkships, or other situations which open up a career of promotion. There can be no doubt that this practice has a beneficial tendency. It conveys to the popular mind an idea of necessary connection between the longer retention of the child in school, and its advancement in future life. No motive can more powerfully induce parents to retain their children in school than examples thus brought before them of the children of their neighbours being appointed to situations of trust, respect, or emolument, on the ground of superior acquirements attained by a few years "additional schooling." It is an appeal to the self-interest of the parent in a practical, matter of fact shape that comes home to every understanding. It shows that longer retention in the school, leads somewhere—that it is necessary to obtain a position higher than that of the ordinary workman. At Dowlais and Cwmavon, where this plan is, with some difference in detail, in operation, I could trace very distinctly its beneficial results, in the greater proportion of children above ten years of age in those schools than in the schools of the surrounding districts, and not less, I think, in the general intelligence of the portion of the population ranging from sixteen to twenty-six years. There may be concurrent causes to produce this result, but there is no doubt that frequently recurring examples of children who have received a superior education filling offices of responsibility are not without their influence upon parents. At the same time it must be admitted that such influences for good can only be partial; the positions of trust and profit are few in comparison with the vast numbers of men employed in these great establishments, and in proportion as the chances become more remote, the prize itself becomes less an object for the attainment of which sacrifices will be made, especially when, as in this case, it is opposed to immediate and certain pecuniary advantage. The fact, at all events, that the results are partial, is apparent from the evidence given on the subject, among which I may be permitted to call attention to that of Mr. Gilbertson, of the Cwmavon Works, a gentleman who for many years past has been unremitting in his efforts to check this evil of early withdrawal, and whose experience entitles his opinions to the weight of an authority.

In some of the Works in this district the employers, with a view to placing a check on "early withdrawal," have established an education test as a condition of the employment of children ranging from 10 to 12 years of age. The test usually adopted is ability to read and write. It does not appear that any very marked result is obtained from this practice. The standard proposed is easily attained by the child at ten years of age, with scarcely the slightest intellectual training, and in a year or two after the withdrawal, the power both of reading and writing is, from disuse, often entirely

Promotion as a check on early withdrawal.

The education test as a check on early withdrawal.

lost. This is particularly the case in the Works in South Wales where the children of the great body of the working classes turn to their native tongue for all uses of language, both in reading and speaking. It is evident, too, that employers who insist on these "certificates of merit" must enter into unequal competition with those who do not, and in a district where labour is in such demand as often to exceed the supply, the general adoption of such a practice is almost beyond the limits of rational expectation.

The law for regulating juvenile labour in collieries.

The evidence on the operation of the law for preventing juvenile labour in collieries under ten years of age, indicates that legislative interference up to this point has been generally effective for its proposed objects, and in its results beneficial. It is, however, necessary so far to qualify this statement, as to say, that breaches of it are by no means unfrequent, and in some of the colliery districts very general. But its extension, so as to bring within its operation children of a more mature age, is open to objections that at least demand mature deliberation. Among these, it is urged that the increased value of the child's labour at a more advanced age would lead to such continual evasions of the law as would render its provisions practically inoperative. The general feeling seems to be, that, in the prevention of the employment of children under ten years of age, the law goes as far as it safely can go.

Extension of the law to other branches of manufactures.

To the extension of the provisions of the Collieries Act, to iron, tin, and other Works, it is objected that where the demand for labour is so great, and competition so strong, there will always be a danger that any enactment which interferes with the general labour market will operate injuriously on commercial interests by becoming a tax on the cost of production. Nor does this suggestion derive sanction from the fact that, in the Collieries Act, we have an example of legislative action for the prevention of early labour, which has been attended with beneficial results, for no legitimate conclusion can be drawn from the application of law to a special form of labour, such as that of collieries, to warrant its application to labour generally. In the one case, all the conditions are known, and the result may be determined with something like certainty; in the other, it is impossible to ascertain all the circumstances, or to prewise the consequences of the extension of the law to such a vast variety of complicated interests. While I withhold any expression of opinion on the merit of these objections, I deem it my duty to state them as embodying the views of influential classes with which I have come into contact in the course of this inquiry. The spirit of these objections will, perhaps, be further illustrated by the following statement, in connection with early withdrawal in the slate quarries of North Wales:— "The workmen take their children to the quarries with them from nine to ten and eleven years of age, as it is found by experience that the earlier they begin the better workmen do they become. Unless a boy begins to practise at quarrying the slate by the time he is twelve years of age at furthest, there is little chance of his hereafter becoming a good workman in that department.

“ It is a ‘knack,’ and must be begun early, in order to become perfect in it. A boy left until he is fourteen years old would have little chance of becoming a good workman.”

But, whatever opinion may be entertained on the theoretical question, it would seem that in the present state of public feeling, it is in the class of agencies known as moral and social, that we are to look for the only practical remedies for early withdrawal. The progress of general intelligence, the increase of appliances for economising labour, are the forces which have in the past raised the standard of education, and extended the school period of the class occupying the intermediate station between the middle class and labouring population—that of the skilled artisans. Even in middle class schools there has been from similar causes an extension of the period over which children are retained in school, and there is every reason to anticipate that, stimulated by these influences, a growing appreciation by parents of the value of education, and its closer adaptation to the business and duties of life, will eventually be attended with the same results to the classes among which early withdrawal is now most prevalent. There is, however, no class of men who can more effectually contribute to this better appreciation of an extended education than school teachers themselves. On none do the consequences of early withdrawal fall more heavily, to none do they come more home than to schoolmasters; by it they are deprived of the fruits of their labours, are often dispirited by the insignificant results, which they are able to show in return for the zeal they display, or the difficulties they have to contend with. Yet they seem, themselves, to have made little effort to counteract the evil; they appear to have been relying too much on aid from without. Hence the same routine is adopted in the educational treatment of children who are withdrawn from school at ten years of age, as in schools where they are retained till twelve or thirteen years. Instead of accepting early withdrawal as a fact, in subordination to which the education should be modelled, their courses of instruction are little better than attempts to compress within the space of some two or three years all that would fairly imply school attendance over a period of four or five years, and the result too frequently is an aggravation of the evils of early withdrawal by superficial knowledge. Whereas, the great object should be the attainment of the highest amount of mental development possible under the circumstances, by the concentration of the energies of the child on a few subjects, selected with a view, not only to furnish a certain amount of attainments, but to develop taste and sympathies which after leaving the school would become germs of intellectual activity—or in other words, a thirst for knowledge.

There are two features in our educational system which, as they may be converted into powerful adjuncts to counteracting the evils of early withdrawal, ought not to be passed over without special reference to them—they are Infant Schools, and Evening Schools. The tables given above show a proportion of nearly 21 per cent. males and 23 per cent. females in the manufac-

Practical remedies for early withdrawal.

Improvement of Infant Education.

turing subdistrict, and 10 per cent. males and 13 per cent. females in the agricultural subdistrict, to be in school between three and six years of age. These proportions are, or ought to be, the subjects of Infant School treatment, and much might be done by improving the character of the preparative instruction in schools of this class towards carrying the education of children by ten years of age to a higher point than is attained at present. Speaking generally, neither as to system, still less as to subject-matter of instruction, does the Infant School come up to its "original conception." In its external organisation, in promoting habits of order and in discipline, it is excellent, but in all that pertains to the intellectual it is wanting. One fact may be mentioned illustrative of the erroneous views taken of Infant School instruction. In most of the schools that I visited to which a distinct Infant School was attached, the mistress of that school was an assistant teacher, generally from 18 to 20 years of age. The theory of education represents that a high order of teaching capacity and experience is particularly demanded for the instruction of the young. The above fact shows in what estimation the Infant School is held in practice in the district to which this Report applies.

Evening schools.

The Evening School, taking up the education of the child from the time he leaves the school, and following him until he has arrived at manhood, is a more direct agency for counteracting this evil of early withdrawal. Whether its influence can be brought to bear on the unskilled labouring class, universally, or even very generally, may be the subject of a doubt which is adverted to elsewhere in this Report. But I have little hesitation in saying that it may, short of this point, be the means of supplying much of that which is left undone through early withdrawal—enough to make it of importance that every school in the neighbourhood of, or in connection with, large Works should have added to it, as indispensable to the completeness of its provision for education—an Evening or Night School.

EVENING SCHOOLS.

Deficiency of evening schools in this district.

Evening schools constitute a comparatively insignificant feature in the educational provision for this district; the total number of schools from which returns have been obtained being 41, with 1,196 scholars "belonging" to them. In this number are included not only evening schools or classes connected with Mechanics and similar institutions, but private night schools, and those organisations which, under the designation of Literary societies, Mutual Improvement societies, and other titles, have arrangements for teaching one or more special branches of education, *e.g.*, grammar, English or Welsh composition or arithmetic. Of the whole number of schools, 16, containing 522 scholars, are in the agricultural portion of the district, and 25, containing 674 scholars, in the two South Wales Unions.

Evening schools in the manufacturing.

In the manufacturing districts public evening schools were had recourse to by a very small proportion of the working population and the schools, or more properly speaking, the classes connected

with Mechanics and similar institutions, were very generally in a state of decadence; some, after a trial of a greater or longer period, falling away from want of attendance, others given up for want of teachers, the former being most frequently the cause. In these instances, the so-called "institution" had shrunk into the proportions of a newspaper reading room, often with a library attached, but not much used. The class of persons who availed themselves of the advantages of these cheap reading rooms were generally small tradesmen and their apprentices. Even where established in connexion with iron, copper, or other works, it was to a very inconsiderable extent that the workmen availed themselves of the advantages of evening schools, although no charge was made for attendance, or, more correctly speaking, they had already paid for it in the deductions from their wages towards the general education fund, which they were compelled to contribute to, as stated in a subsequent portion of this Report. Those who resorted to the schools were generally a special class, skilled artisans—young men in the "fitting or engine making department,"—who wished to obtain a knowledge of some special branch of instruction connected with their calling. The subjects of instruction in the public evening schools were reading and writing, sometimes grammar, but principally arithmetic and mensuration; and in the schools connected with works, mechanical drawing. The private evening schools were generally resorted to by young men (or in some cases, women,) whose early education had been neglected, or by those who wished to revive their knowledge of some forgotten branch of their earlier learning. In almost all cases their object in coming to the evening school was to "get up" some special branch of learning, and for some such special purpose as qualifying themselves for a situation, &c.

&c. Unions, not well attended.

For this low state of evening schools in the manufacturing portion of this district there is one main cause—the exhaustive character of the employments in which the great mass of the working population are engaged. The energies of labouring men in such works as collieries, copper, iron, or tin works are so exhausted by the time their daily toil is over, that they are not only indisposed for, but unequal to any continuous mental exertion, such as is implied in attending a class in an evening school. I refer to statements in illustration of the nature of this labour which are given in the Appendix. In fact, this difficulty is felt in reference to other subjects of instruction than those of the evening school. A Dissenting minister who had had considerable experience among the population of the manufacturing districts informed me that he had found that "it was of little use to attempt any religious instruction to adults on week-day evenings, which required much continuous thought. He had organised on one occasion a kind of class for the instruction of adult teachers in Sunday schools, in the geography and natural history of the Bible; but he found that his class, were, at least mentally, half asleep while he was instructing them. He had known other instances of the same kind. In fact, the men in these works were so completely tired that they were unequal when

Nature of the employment is the main cause.

the evening came to any greater mental labour than hearing a very plain sermon or an address on some subject that did not require very continuous attention." The religious bodies recognise the fact, and in their machinery for religious instruction make arrangements for meeting it.—I may here observe that the portion of the working classes who have recourse to evening schools in the manufacturing districts of South Wales is generally composed of skilled artisans, and of these principally those the nature of whose employment during the day least tasks the physical energies. I think the main source of hope of bringing the advantages of evening schools to bear on the unskilled labour classes lies in such an arrangement of these schools as will combine recreation with conveying general information. The means of doing this I shall presently advert to.

Evening
schools in
North Wales.

In the North Wales Unions, I found a kind of spontaneous organisation of the agricultural labourers and farmers for evening meetings at certain periods of the year, for mutual instruction. I may here remark generally that one of the most pleasing features that presented themselves in the course of my inquiry was the strong desire manifested, particularly by young men, in the rural districts of North Wales, to avail themselves of opportunities of self-improvement. The sacrifices they made to secure this end were in many instances worthy of the highest admiration. In connection with the societies to which I refer, meetings were held once or oftener in the course of the week, when a paper was read, and the subject treated of in it discussed, and in many instances classes were formed for stated evenings, for teaching Welsh or English grammar, or composition. In reference to the agricultural portion of the district generally, I think that the character of the labour and other features in the condition of the working population are highly favourable to the success of evening schools, if they were generally established throughout this part of the country; at least no difficulties which may not easily be overcome present themselves. Indeed the principal difficulty would be that of the deficiency of teachers, and that could only be overcome by Government aid. With assistance from this source public schools in connection with the Committee of Council have an opportunity of availing themselves of evening schools by the substitution of a "scheduled teacher" for the equivalent number of pupil-teachers. The benefits that must result from the establishment of evening schools in the towns, as well as in the rural districts of North Wales, would make it a subject of deep regret if this means of diffusing education among the adolescent population were not extensively had recourse to by the promoters of schools in that part of the country.

Organisation
of evening
schools.

In connection with evening schools, one fact has been pressed on my observation in the course of this inquiry which, I think, is important as an indication of the character, as to organisation and mode of instruction, which these schools should assume, in order, by meeting the requirements of the general labouring population to bring them within the sphere of educational influences. In this district two classes of the organisations which come under

the designation of evening schools seem to secure the widest and most regular support of the public:—1. Private evening schools for special branches of instruction. 2. The organisations which under the name of Literary, Mutual Improvement, and other societies have very varied elements of instruction, all, however popular in their nature, partaking as they do in part of the character of a debating society, a society for providing lectures, and classes. I think that the two different features in the character of these organisations might be taken as the basis of the organisation of evening schools in the manufacturing districts, and they should steadily aim at being the means of blending intellectual and even physical recreation with imparting knowledge. An organisation of this kind would comprise classes for instruction in special branches for such as should choose to avail themselves of them,—lectures of a light descriptive kind, bearing on elementary science or general information,—discussion and conversation meetings. The general aim of such organisations should be to give to the dissemination of knowledge that variety of interest which would meet the intellectual condition and tastes of as wide a circle of the population as possible.

The conditions of the grants of the Committee of Council in aid of evening schools are such as to render them unavailable in this district, with a few rare exceptions. The limitation of aid to evening schools in connection with day schools under certificated masters would alone go far towards excluding a large portion of the agricultural districts from participation in the aid proffered, while the condition of the amount being contingent on subscriptions from the school still more tends to defeat the object of the grant.

Government
aid to evening
schools.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

The Welsh Sunday school has its origin in the religious movement in Wales, referred to in a previous portion of this Report. In date it claims priority to the English Sunday school, and differs in many important features in its organisation, and indeed in general scope and object, from that institution. The leaders of the religious movement in Wales had to deal not only with a people who were ignorant, but who spoke a language in which there were no books adapted to the purposes of diffusing religious knowledge—even the Bible being at that period a rare book in the hands of the Welshman. The Sunday school sought to supply this deficiency by conveying religious knowledge through the Sunday school teacher. In Wales, therefore, the Sunday school contemplated not only the instruction of children but the general enlightenment of its whole population, adults as well as the young, in the doctrines and duties of religion. In these circumstances we have the explanation of many of the peculiar features of the Welsh Sunday school, such as the character of its instruction, and the importance which is attached to it as a part of the public institutions of religion.

Origin of the
Welsh Sunday
school.

Organisation
of the Welsh
Sunday school.

The organisation of the Sunday school in Wales is simple in its character. In its more essential features it is nothing more than the meeting of persons of the same religious denomination together for the purpose of mutual instruction in religious matters, and of teaching children. A secretary and superintendent complete the organisation of the school, which then becomes affiliated with the place of worship with which the founders of the school are connected. This simplicity of organisation has powerfully contributed to the universality of the Welsh Sunday school, and the extension of religious knowledge to the remotest recesses of the country. The management and direction of the schools is in the hands of the superintendent, secretary, and body of teachers. Among the various dissenting denominations the direction is essentially of a lay and popular character, a feature which, no doubt, largely contributes to the interest which is generally felt in the institution by the people. In schools connected with the Church of England, the clergy have generally the larger share in the management. The cost of supporting the school, which is generally very small, is made by collections in the school and occasionally in the congregation with which it is connected.

Beyond the individual school, organisation for united action is carried out to a greater or less extent by different denominations, but the only general feature of this kind is an aggregate meeting of the schools of a denomination within certain districts for the recital of chapters of the Bible, a catechism, singing, or the delivery of addresses, and other compositions, on subjects of a religious nature. These meetings, in which the proceedings are of a competency character, exercise a powerful influence in an educational point of view on the mass of the population.

STATISTICS OF
SUNDAY
SCHOOLS.

Per-centage of
scholars to
population.

The following Table shows the number of Sunday Schools from which returns were obtained, the total number of Scholars belonging to the schools, the estimated Population in the middle of 1858, and the proportion per cent. of scholars to the population:—

UNIONS.	Number of Sunday Schools from which Returns have been obtained.	Total Number of Scholars belonging to the foregoing Schools.	Estimated Population at the Middle of 1858.	Proportion per Cent. of Scholars to Population.
Dolgelley - -	68	5,510	12,971	42·9
Ffestiniog - -	78	7,251	16,797	43·4
Bala - - -	39	3,553	6,736	52·7
Corwen - - -	61	6,197	15,653	39·6
Neath - - -	108	12,754	59,527	21·4
Merthyr Tydfil -	133	19,834	99,758	19·9

This table establishes one important fact—the wide extension of the Sunday school institution throughout the district (and there is

every reason to conclude the remark applies to Wales generally) and the large proportion of the population brought through its agency under religious instruction. The highest proportion per cent. of Sunday scholars to population in England (exclusive of Wales) is 19·8 (Education Census, 1851: Rep. p. 76, Table 23.). The common centesimal proportion for the North Wales Unions is about 43·2, and for the South Wales Unions 20·6; being in the former an excess of 23·4, and in the latter of ·8 over the highest per-centage of an English county. The total number of scholars, in fact, considerably exceeds that of the population between three and fifteen years of age in the agricultural districts, and in the South Wales Unions forms a large proportion of it, as will be seen from the following table of the "Number (estimated) of persons of the ages 3-15 years at the middle of 1858, and the total number of scholars belonging to the Sunday Schools in the several Unions":—

UNIONS.	Population between 3 and 15 years.	Scholars of all Ages.	Proportion per Cent. of Scholars to Population, between 3 and 15 years.
Dolgelly . . .	3,552	5,510	155·1
Ffestiniog . . .	4,956	7,251	150·3
Bala	1,843	3,553	192·8
Corwen	4,472	6,197	138·6
Neath	18,095	12,754	70·5
Merthyr Tydfil . . .	26,697	19,834	74·3

It will be seen from an inspection of the centesimal proportions to the estimated population that the higher per-centages are in the agricultural unions; in those unions, it is important to remark, in which the equal distribution of day schools over their areas is one of the great difficulties of education as it at present exists. As a considerable proportion of the Sunday schools are branch schools, established in districts more or less remote from the places of worship with which they are connected, it is fair to conclude that the Sunday school has accomplished what is yet a desideratum with respect to day schools, by penetrating the remote and thinly populated districts of this part of the country. And such we find to be the fact. The Sunday school, with its religious instruction, may be found in recesses where no day school, nor even the house of worship, has a place; in fact, it has scarcely left a few houses in the most alpine regions of North Wales without its branch, and may be said to have brought within its influence the whole population.

In the agricultural unions 22,511 scholars are divided among 246 schools, giving an average to each school of scholars belonging to the schools of 91·5; in the Unions of Neath and Merthyr Tydfil, 32,588 scholars and 241 schools give an average per school

Average number of scholars to schools.

of 135·2 scholars. The difference in the average amount of scholars to the school is accounted for by the fact that the branch schools are more nearly equal in numbers and in importance to the parent schools in North than in South Wales, the central schools in the latter being large and the branches comparatively few in number, and altogether held as being less important. In North Wales the number of schools in proportion to that of the scholars is greater, but the schools themselves are not so large. There is, in fact, a greater distribution of schools over the whole population in North, than in South Wales.

Average attendance in Sundayschools.

The Table given beneath shows the per-centage of Scholars in average attendance in the Sunday Schools of this district :—

TABLE II.

UNIONS.	Number of Schools that made Returns as to Attendance.	Number of Scholars belonging to the Schools.	Average Attendance.	Per-centage of Scholars in average Attendance.
Dolgelly - -	68	5,510	4,271	77·5
Ffestiniog - -	73	7,068	5,625	79·6
Bala - -	39	3,553	2,527	71·1
Corwen - -	58	5,903	4,509	76·3
Neath - -	101	11,847	9,864	83·3
Merthyr Tydfil -	127	19,001	15,972	84·

These per-centages grouped in more general forms show that the per-centage of scholars in average attendance in the agricultural portion of the "Specimen District" is 76·1 per cent.; in the manufacturing and mixed divisions, 83·6 per cent. The per-centages are higher than the per-centages of average attendance at public day schools for the same districts, exceeding in the one case by a difference of per-centage of 1·6, and in the other by a difference of 11. The South Wales Unions, it will be seen, give the higher per-centages of attendance, a fact which seems inconsistent with the deeper importance attached to the Sunday school, and its closer incorporation with the other institutions of religious worship in North Wales; but it is accounted for by the physical character of the country, which in the winter season, no doubt, prevents a considerable portion of the population in agricultural districts from regular attendance at the school during one part of the Sunday or the other.

Indication of this table.

No fact can more forcibly depict the character or attest the extent of the influence which the Sunday school in Wales has obtained over the mind of its population than these figures. They show that out of a body of 55,099 persons who are found on the books of the Sunday schools of the "Specimen District," the

proportion of 76·8 per cent. (nearly), or above three-fourths of the whole number, are brought together Sunday after Sunday for the purpose of religious instruction. And this, too, is effected without punishments to deter or compel, solely by the class of influences which are called "moral," by a power the fundamental notion of which is duty, and the machinery employed in the development of which is opinion alone. Our estimate of the character of this influence is raised still higher when it is considered that the great mass of those who thus congregate at the place of learning, often from a considerable distance, have spent the six days of the week in unremitting toil. It is the small farmer, the farm labourer, the collier, or miner, who has spent his six working days in the depths of the earth, and the smelter whose labours are so exhaustive, and such as these, most of them down to the age of ten years engaged in labour, that are induced to devote a large and the best portion of their only day of rest to the acquisition of religious knowledge. An institution which by such means can accomplish such great ends, which can, in a whole population, in opposition to all counteracting tendencies, develop such active energies for good, shows that it has attained a moral power which is the best evidence of the adaptation of its machinery to accomplish its ends.

The following Table shows the proportion per cent. of scholars above 15 years of age, to the average number of scholars in Sunday school attendance in schools that have made returns to this head of inquiry :—

Proportion of scholars above 15 years of age to average attendance.

TABLE III.

UNIONS.	Average Number of Scholars in Sunday School Attendance.	Number of Scholars above 15 years of age.	Proportion above 15 years of Age to average Attendance.
Dolgelly - -	4,271	1,784	41'6
Ffestiniog - -	5,625	2,901	51'6
Bala - - -	2,527	1,854	73'4
Corwen - - -	4,509	2,415	53'5
Neath - - -	9,864	3,846	39'0
Merthyr Tydfil -	15,972	5,715	35'81

This Table exhibits one of the great features in which the Welsh is distinguished from the English Sunday school. It indicates the wider scope which the Sunday school in Wales proposes to itself as an institution, not simply to impart to the young elementary and religious instruction, but to follow up the work thus begun, by carrying forward the work of inculcating religious

knowledge up to the period of manhood, and on men of mature age. It thus takes under its care not only the inculcation of knowledge, but through this the formation of habits of thought, of moral feeling, and thus seeks to guide moral action. It in fact regards as its sphere not merely the instruction of the child, but the religious training of the whole man; nor is this view of its object an extension of its first conception, an improvement on its original purpose, but, as will be seen from observations made elsewhere in adverting to this subject, it was interwoven with the original conception of the institution and its object. It is important to bear this in mind in considering, as in the course of these remarks we shall have occasion, the subject matter of instruction in the Sunday school in Wales. The early labourers who at different periods of the last century entered on the field of religious instruction in the Principality, with that deep insight into the principles of human nature, which enabled them to derive wisdom from the social conditions by which they were surrounded, took broader views of, and gave a wider scope to the action of the Sunday school institution than those which contemplated the instruction of children. They knew that instruction in the elements of religion carried up to 14 or 15 years of age, and then dropped, would be evanescent—that it would be laying the foundation and neglecting to raise the superstructure—they, from the first, practically embodied in their Sunday school system, a truth since well expressed in reference to the Sunday schools of England, that “without some means of continuing instruction and “maintaining influence when the scholar enters the most critical “period of life, the chances are that what has been already done will “prove to have been done in vain.” (Education Census, Report, p. 75). We have, in fact, in the passage I have cited, a recognition of the distinctive principle of the Welsh Sunday school—that to obtain fruits from early instruction—to establish the influence of its teaching over the mind—that teaching must be carried onward from youth to manhood, in fact through life. The Welsh Sunday school thus realises the grand conception of an institution which seeks not simply to impart religious knowledge, but through this as a means to generate habits of thought and feeling, which will be well-springs of action throughout life—and to its originators must be awarded the merit of having anticipated, in reference to religious teaching, a principle which is now recognised as common to every department of education, that juvenile instruction, to secure its fruits, must be carried forward to adult age. The Sunday school in Wales is, in fact, a great lay agency, which seeks its aid by a special machinery—that end being not religious instruction, but through instruction religious education.

Age to which instruction is carried in Welsh Sunday school's.

In one respect, indeed, the returns, in giving simply the number of scholars above 15 years of age, do not adequately reflect the composition of a Welsh Sunday school. To bring into full relief its character as an institution for ulterior instruction one or more further subdivisions would be necessary, as the “number above 15 years” comprises a very large proportion of scholars of varying ages,

from 15 to 50, and even to 60 and 70 years of age.* On entering a Sunday school (Welsh) in Wales, any associations we may have formed in connection with such an institution as the place where the young only are taught are entirely dissipated, for we see around us classes of men and women, not merely of adult, but of middle and advanced age; fathers and sons, mothers and daughters, meet on this spot, equally to learn, to receive common instruction, varied in degree and character according to age and previous opportunities of acquiring religious knowledge. The original conception of which this feature in the Welsh Sunday school is a consequence—that the Sunday school, like public worship, is a part and parcel of the institutions of religion, has its fullest development in North Wales, where not only all ages, but a variety of social grades, may be found in the classes of a Sunday school. With some modification, such is also the case in the rural districts in South Wales; but in the towns there is an evident falling off in the number of persons of more advanced ages, as well as of variety of grades. In fact, it would seem that, in proportion as the English element has infused itself into the schools or population, there is a relaxation of the practice of adult attendance in the Sunday schools. In the Sunday schools in Wales in which English is the language of instruction there are few, if any, adults; in fact, the whole of the scholars are, unless under special circumstances, under 15 years of age. In many of the Sunday schools connected with the Church, the teaching in the schools is in the English language; where such is the case, the school consists almost solely of young persons under 16 years of age. In fact, adult instruction as an essential element in the organisation of the Sunday school appears to be a distinctive feature of the Welsh speaking portion of the population; with the adoption of English customs and habits of thought the practice becomes more relaxed, and in the English Sunday school (in Wales) it altogether “dies out.” The English conception of the Sunday school, that its province is to give instruction in the elementary principles of religion to the children of the poorer classes, is fallen into and becomes the model on which the practice is based.

To adult instruction as a systematic feature in the Welsh Sunday school must be mainly ascribed the power which that institution has attained, and the results it has to show in the changes in the moral and social condition of the population of Wales which it has produced. As I shall have occasion to notice those changes elsewhere, it is here sufficient to observe, that more than 70 years experience of the working of adult instruction in the Sunday schools of Wales may be pointed to as fully justifying its description (Report, Education Census, p. 75), in reference to English Sunday schools, as “the grand desideratum to the perfect working of the Sunday school system.”

Results of
adult instruction
in Sunday
schools.

* As education has become more general of late years, this feature in the Welsh Sunday school should be taken into consideration in forming conclusions from cols. 3, 4, and 5, Table II., in the Sunday school circular.

Sunday school
teachers.

The following Table shows the proportion of scholars to teachers in the Welsh district :—

UNIONS.	Number of Schools making Returns.	Total Number of Scholars belonging to the Schools.	Total Number of Voluntary Teachers.	Number of Scholars to each Teacher.
Dolgelly - -	68	5,510	627	8·8
Ffestiniog - -	78	7,251	967	7·5
Bala - - -	39	3,553	663	6·4
Corwen - - -	61	6,197	719	8·6
Neath - - -	108	12,754	1,616	7·9
Merthyr Tydfil -	133	19,884	2,570	7·7

The general proportion in the agricultural Unions is the same as that of the South Wales Unions, both giving 7·8 scholars to each teacher. Throughout the whole Table there is, indeed, comparatively little difference in the proportions, the greatest being between Dolgelly, which gives 8·8, and Bala 6·4 scholars to each teacher. There are good grounds for concluding that this uniformity is not accidental, but that it is due to a systematic supply of the teaching power to the demand created by the method of instruction and the nature of the subject matter. In the Welsh Sunday school the method of teaching is collective to a certain extent, but with this is combined the most minute individual examination. Every member of a class is heard singly; there is no simultaneous repetition of lessons. The general proportion for all England is stated (Report, Education Census, p. 77), to be 7·6 scholars to one teacher; but this, it is added, must be taken subject to a custom prevailing in some parts of the country of *alternate* teaching. As this observation does not apply to the Welsh Sunday schools, it is probable that the number of scholars to each teacher is somewhat more in the English Sunday schools than in the Welsh. It would, however, appear, by a comparison of the proportions in the Table given above, with a statement in the Report, Education Census, p. 77-8, that there is not the same variation in the number of scholars to teachers in the Sunday schools in Wales as in the English Sunday school in particular parts of the country.

Voluntary and
paid teachers.

In this district the teaching power may be said to be wholly supplied by voluntary agency, there being only four paid teachers in the returns from both North and South Wales. Under the head "voluntary teachers" are included a considerable number of masters and mistresses of the Church of England day schools, whose attendance at the Sunday school is not compulsory. The circumstances in which the Sunday school institution in Wales originated, sufficiently explain why its agency for teaching should be so exclusively of a voluntary character.

Qualifications
of teachers.

In the Sunday schools of Wales, as may be expected from

the difference in the age of those who resort to them, the body of teachers is composed of very varied elements, according to the subject matter and method of instruction necessary to render the teaching suitable to the variety in ages and attainments of the learners. For the younger scholars, the teachers are generally selected by the promoters or heads of the school, from those among the more advanced classes who evince inclination or aptitude for teaching. If the teacher justifies the expectations entertained of him, and his inclination for the duties continue, he gradually rises to the charge of more advanced classes, and ultimately becomes a teacher of adults. As there is no definite test of qualifications for the office, it might be expected that the influx of candidates, for what to many young persons must be an object of ambition, would be attended with a considerable amount of incompetency to the duties undertaken. But in practice this, I am informed, is not generally found to be the case. The voluntary character of the office to a great extent precludes this. It is rarely that any are selected who do not show an inclination for the duties, and the inclination to teach in such a case may generally be taken as an index to the power of teaching. There is an additional guarantee for competency in the fact that regard is always had in the selection to good conduct, and generally those who devote themselves to the duties are the most reading and reflective, as well as serious minded portion of the scholars. There are no doubt incompetent teachers, especially in the younger classes of a Welsh Sunday school. But the surveillance exercised over them by the heads of the school, and still more the feeling that want of success would lower them in the estimate of those by whom they are surrounded, would lead the great mass of the incompetent to withdraw, more especially as they would find that promotion to more advanced stages would demand special qualifications in teaching, without which, as in the adult sections the taught have a voice in the selection of the teacher, they could not hope to aspire to the conducting of a class.

The teachers of adults are generally taken from the most intelligent and reading men (on scriptural and religious subjects) connected with the school, or the church or congregation to which the school is attached. In the schools belonging to dissenting denominations the deacons, elders, or other officials connected with a congregation frequently occupy the position of teachers in the more advanced adult classes. The office of a teacher in an adult class is for the most part elective, and the suffrages of the class are virtually appealed to in his appointment. As the Scriptures form the common basis of the subject-matter of instruction in all the adult classes, and the member of one class can pass over to another, there is a competition naturally excited between the teachers, which stimulates every teacher, by reading and other means, to extend his scriptural and religious knowledge generally. An inefficient or ignorant teacher would be deserted by his scholars, and as a rule which holds good with respect to

Teachers of
adult classes.

Sunday Schools generally,—the best teacher has the largest class. Here we have one of the beneficial influences of the Sunday school in Wales on general enlightenment—one of its tendencies to accelerate the diffusion of knowledge and the spread of education. Some two or three thousand men distributed at intervals over the portion of Wales which constitutes the “Specimen District,” amid its agricultural as well as manufacturing population, must have a vast influence by example, in reading as well as by communication of knowledge, in forming the tastes, and in giving a direction to the energies of the population in favour of the acquirement of knowledge. The knowledge they acquire it may be true is religious knowledge only, biblical or doctrinal. But the exercise of mind on this department of thought cannot be without its educational results in intellectual training, and the amount of acumen,—minute attention to verbal distinctions,—the array of texts and facts which these Sunday school teachers bring to bear on the instruction they give, is often very considerable. But powers thus called into activity, and tastes thus generated by the direction of mind to one department of thought are not often restricted to their original limits, and thus in the Sunday school teachers of Wales as a body (and they are principally composed of the industrial and labouring classes), a large amount of general information beyond the knowledge required for Sunday school instruction is found. Among them are found the great proportion of the contributors to the periodical literature of the Principality, the successful competitors in the literary associations of the country (the *Eisteddfodau*), many of the most popular preachers and eminent ministers in the Dissenting denominations, and several in the Church. Everywhere they are found the intelligent and active supporters, and very generally the promoters of literary societies, libraries, and other organisations for the dissemination of popular knowledge, as well as of every institution which has for its object the moral improvement and social elevation of those by whom they are surrounded.

Subject-matter
of instruction
in juvenile
classes.

In the Welsh Sunday schools the acquirement of what are ordinarily regarded as the main branches of juvenile instruction, reading and spelling, is, from the peculiar character of the Welsh language, very easily accomplished. In that language every letter is pronounced, every vowel and consonant present in a word are there for a purpose,—to be sounded. There are neither silent consonants nor unpronounced vowels. The distinction of a few long and short vowels constitutes the principal variety in the sounds of the letters. In a language thus inartificial in the relation of its sounds to the letters by which they are designated, there is properly no room for what we call spelling—a knowledge of the powers of the letters and the mechanical facility of putting them together are, in fact, the easy conditions of learning to “read Welsh,” and the attainment is one which, under ordinary circumstances, is very rapidly made. The class system is adopted in this, as indeed it is in every other department of the Sunday school; but it is combined with individual instruction as before

observed. Beyond reading, the principal subject of instruction is getting up passages of Scripture, or of hymns and other compositions of a religious character by rote, for recitation in public—often in the place of worship. The power of memory, which is often developed by these exercises, is extraordinary. Looking, however, to the juvenile department of the Welsh Sunday school as a whole, I am induced to conclude that it is the “weak point” in that institution, so far at least that it does not produce proportional results to its advantages, nor to those which are obtained in the more advanced stages of its teaching. I do not mean to imply that what is taught is imperfectly taught; but that, considering the facility with which the principal branch of elementary instruction,—reading—can be acquired, the amount of knowledge imparted during the juvenile period, from eight to twelve or thirteen years of age, is not so great as it ought to be. I attribute this principally to a deficiency of books adapted to the purposes of the instruction of the young. Nothing can be more meagre than the books generally in use for teaching reading. In number they are, indeed, a host, but they are singularly wanting in variety of subject matter, of language, and of illustration. In the schools connected with the various classes of Dissenters, the elementary books seem to be all drawn up on the same model, and under the influence of one idea—the alphabet, long columns of words for spelling, and a collection of Scripture texts for reading, constituting almost their sole contents. There are a few small books of a somewhat improved character. In a few Church Sunday schools I observed the Illustrated Scripture Lessons published by the National Society. The instances in which I found these excellent aids to elementary instruction were surprisingly rare. The Sunday School Union has also recently published a series of improved school books in Welsh, but they leave ample room for future labours in the same direction. The publication of a series of lesson books for junior classes, with readings in Scripture, geography, natural history, and biography, and of illustrated lesson boards, is as yet a desideratum in the elementary religious instruction of Welsh Sunday schools.

Adult instruction in the Welsh Sunday school is carried on by ^{In adult} classes and teachers; but the method generally closely approaches ^{classes.} that of mutual instruction, the teacher being, in fact, the leader. The text book invariably is the Scriptures, each book being generally gone through chapter by chapter. The verses are read in succession by the members of the class, and as each reader concludes, questions, if the passage suggests any, on the meaning, are addressed either by the teacher to the reader, or, as frequently put by some member of the class, to the other members. When the views of the class have been given, the teacher sums up the various opinions, and gives his own conclusions, with the reasons on which they are founded. It will be seen from this description, that the teaching partakes more of a discussional than of a preceptive character, and that the duty of the teacher is rather to evoke knowledge by eliciting opinion than by imparting it in a

didactic form. This mode of instruction, in addition to the interest which it necessarily creates in the work of the class, has the undoubted advantage of developing acuteness in thought, and independence in the formation of opinion.

Male and female classes.

In all the Sunday schools throughout this district there are distinct classes for males and females of all ages. The observations I have made with respect to the former, as to the method and subject matter of instruction and teachers, apply equally to the latter. In a large proportion of instances the adult female classes are taught by women, but very frequently also by men, while in the junior department the girls are more generally, but by no means invariably, taught by one of their own sex. Females have also occasionally charge of the younger boys' classes.

Doctrinal and moral instruction in Sunday schools.

The general character of the subject-matter of instruction has been already explained. But there is one feature in connection with it which demands notice here. I refer to the large and (as it is said) disproportionate extent to which religious instruction in the Sunday schools in Wales partakes of a doctrinal character, dealing as it does not only with the historical and other facts recorded in the Bible, and the explanation of its text, but entering largely and minutely into its doctrines, and into the agreement or otherwise of the conclusions deduced from the Scriptures, with the attributes of the Divine Being, and general principles of theology. The implication is, that instruction in the moral duties is neglected. Independently of this impression, very prevalent in some circles, the notion has such internal bearings on the educational condition of the Welsh population, that I do not feel myself justified in passing it over in silence. So far as my opportunities of observation extended, I believe that in forming the views to which I have referred, the objects and constitution of the Welsh Sunday school have not been sufficiently taken into consideration. That there is some amount of doctrine inculcated in all Sunday schools, both in Wales and in England, is, I presume, implied in the fact that the object of all Sunday schools is to give religious instruction. That this will form a prominent feature in the Sunday school of Wales naturally follows, from the fact that a large proportion of its scholars are adults—that it is not children, or even the greater proportion of them that are under instruction, but men and women, most of them arrived at the age of maturity, and that with them doctrines put forth, or opinions deduced from what is read, must have their grounds assigned—conclusions arrived at must be accompanied by reasons—and this implies comment, disquisition, and discussion of what is read. There is no doubt, that, for this reason, the inculcation of doctrine in the sense in which I have explained it forms a much more prominent feature in comparison with the whole subject matter of instruction in a Welsh, than in an English Sunday school; but this is due to the adult element in its composition, and not to the deficiency of moral instruction. And as it respects the adult mind, this is the form of teaching best calculated to excite interest, and to impart knowledge, whatever the subject matter of instruction. I cannot

less than think, that this impression as to the disproportionate amount of doctrinal instruction has arisen from looking at the Welsh, too much with an eye to the juvenile character of the English Sunday school—from making the latter the model in estimating the character of the instruction in the former. As to moral duties, my observation leads me to conclude that it is not less urgently or less frequently inculcated than in English Sunday schools; and that the impression to the contrary is founded rather on the form in which it is inculcated, than the fact of its omission. In teaching adults, instruction necessarily partakes less of the preceptive than reasoning character—the duty is taught in connection with the principles which enforce it—and this is the form particularly suitable to the inquiring tendencies of the Welsh mind. In the juvenile branches of the Sunday schools in Wales, the inculcation of duty is not less a feature of instruction than in those of England, and the formation in connection with them of organisations, having for their object the promotion of virtues equally important to the social welfare as to that of the individual, among which I may cite, as an example, the rapid extension of “Bands of Hope,” attests the zeal and sound discretion exercised by the promoters of Welsh Sunday schools, in the inculcation of practical morality. The deficiency in this department of the Welsh Sunday school is that to which reference has before been made—variety of books for juvenile instruction, and that deficiency applies to moral instruction as well as to other branches. From an attentive consideration of the facts, I come to the conclusion that this impression as to the deficiency of moral instruction in the Welsh Sunday schools is erroneous, and in fact, arises from not taking sufficiently into consideration the spirit and character of the institution as one whose object is not simply religious instruction, but through this the training which constitutes religious education. This spirit pervades it throughout, and gives a tone to the character and spirit in which its teaching is conveyed. Hence, it places more reliance on the exercise of thought on the great subjects of religion than on mere precept, or in other words, it seeks by a machinery which develops reflection, habits, and tastes in the mind, to form within the man principles which will make him equal to, and govern him in the discharge of, the active duties of life.

But the Welsh Sunday school can well allow itself to be tested by the results it has achieved. In little more than half a century, it has been the main agency in effecting that change in the moral and social condition of the population of the country, to which I have before referred as one to which a parallel can scarcely be found in history. Throughout the whole of Wales the peasantry, and in the manufacturing districts their vast population, with very rare exceptions, are not only able to read in their native language, but are familiar with, and most of them well versed in, a knowledge of the Scriptures, while the public virtues of peacefulness, order, and sobriety distinguish their conduct as a people. And, it attests its maintenance of power by the influence which it exercises over the intellectual and social state of the people in their pro-

Results accom-
plished by
Welsh Sunday
schools.

it of
n-
ih
&c.

gressive attachment to sobriety, order, and the public virtues generally. There can be no mistake here as to the cause,—we have here to deal with no complications in the social condition of the population of the Principality,—it is traceable as it were, step by step to the Sunday school, as the main social agency. In disseminating among a whole population religious knowledge, the Sunday school has fulfilled its mission. The provision for religious instruction, is in point of extent—of universality, complete, and it now waits only for the diffusion of general education throughout the Principality to enable it to take a higher position, and fulfil more important functions in the promotion of human improvement, while on the other hand the population of Wales, furnished with the means of religious instruction, require only the establishment of the day school throughout the country, in order, by adding useful to religious knowledge, to render perfect what at present is limited to one department of human thought.

We have in the Sunday school of Wales the great fact that it has succeeded in bringing within its influences, and in communicating religious knowledge to a whole population by an organisation which has had for its sole object religious instruction. Whatever other causes may have favoured this result, it is certain that it would not have been so effectually accomplished if the energies of Sunday school promoters had not been concentrated on a sole end,—religious education. The inference suggested is, as it respects the moral and religious instruction of the people, that a distinct organisation for a single end is best fitted to produce the maximum of results, and there is no reason why this conclusion should not be applicable to all education, whatever its subject matter.

MODE OF EDUCATION.

ernment-of
lic Schools. The government of public schools throughout this district, where they are supported by subscriptions, is usually vested in committees elected from the body of subscribers or school supporters—in the National schools, the parochial clergy being associated with the Committee in the management. The exceptions to this more popular form are National schools in small rural parishes where the officiating minister is under certain conditions the sole manager, and the important schools in South Wales, connected with collieries, iron, or other smelting Works, the direction of which is usually under the sole control of the companies or proprietors of the Works to which the schools are attached. In the North Wales portion of the district, the control of the minor charity schools is exercised by the trustees, who, however, in many cases, do not appear to interfere in the government or discipline of the schools beyond the election of the master, the payment of his salary, or other disbursements of the funds of the charity. In a few cases in which the school partakes of the nature of a parochial charity, or where it has been re-

modelled with the view of adapting it to modern requirements, the trustees have admitted a more popular form of direction by calling in the aid of a committee to take an active part in the superintendence of its educational machinery.

The constitution of the governing body is the principal feature in the management of public schools, either wholly or in part supported by subscriptions. As the committees are selected from the subscribers who generally belong to the middle class, it is evident that the parents of the scholars take no part in the control of the business, or in the superintendence of the educational departments of the schools. This fact, coupled with the general absence of interest on the part of parents in all that pertains to the education of their children, seems to indicate a defect in the organisation of the management, for which the remedy is the association of parents in the government of schools. This would have the beneficial tendency of exciting among them a deeper interest in the working of the schools and the education of their children, and, as an ultimate result, of creating more widespread sympathies with educational progress in the population generally. In the remote rural districts of North and South Wales, where the labouring population as well as the farmers contribute small sums of money towards establishing schools, and the committees are consequently composed of a large proportion of parents, I have had occasion to observe that the interest taken by the parents in the school and in education has been of a more active character than that evinced in towns and populous districts, where the school management has been entrusted to a more exclusively constituted body. It is not within my province to offer any suggestion as to the mode in which arrangements for this purpose should be carried out; but its desirability as a means of exciting a more general interest in education justifies this reference to it as one of the features presented to me in the course of my inquiry.

In a class of schools in South Wales to which I have already adverted, those connected with collieries, iron, tin, and copper Works, the management presents the somewhat exceptional feature — that those who contribute a large proportion of the revenue have no part in the control of the schools. The school buildings in such instances are provided by the proprietors or company, but the greater portion of the funds by which the school is supported is raised by an assessment on the weekly wages of the workmen. The control of these schools is almost exclusively in the hands of the proprietors. They determine whether the school shall be conducted on the National or Non-denominational principle; they appoint the masters and prescribe the subjects of instruction; in fact, it is to them that every question relating to the conducting of the school is referred, and their decision determines the result. Generally, I believe, this management is exercised with deference to the feelings and opinions of the workmen; but this is not uniformly the case, as in some instances I found that dissatisfaction had been created among the employed by the introduction of more exclusive

Constitution of committees and managing bodies.

Management of Schools connected with collieries, &c.

forms of religious instruction than were consistent with their opinions and views. These, however, are exceptional cases. For the most part, when the school in connection with a Works has been established on the National system, the course adopted in reference to a subject so delicate in a district in which Dissent so overwhelmingly preponderates among the working classes is, that the portions only of the Church catechism which embrace common principles are taught in the school, or otherwise the children of such parents as object to the inculcation of the peculiar forms of the Established Church, are exempted from learning the catechism; their religious instruction being limited to instruction in the Holy Scriptures. To the constitution of the administrative department of these schools the remarks I have made above on the educational expediency of exclusively constituted school government apply, but with this additional feature—that the workmen are in this case properly in the position of tax-payers, without any share in the management of the establishments to the support of which they contribute. In saying this, I do not wish to imply that the question should be entertained so much on what may be termed theoretical grounds, such as the rights of the taxed to have control in the expenditure of their money—though this must be allowed its due weight in looking at the subject. I refer here to the more practical, and, in reference to education, more easy question—what, looking to the present state of the intelligence of the unskilled labour class, would be the operation of their participation in the management, on the character and efficiency of the schools themselves. This must, to a considerable extent, be a matter of experiment, but one of which I should augur hopefully from the examples we have before us of the management of Mechanics and other analogous institutions by committees, which are at least largely composed of working men. To these I may add the numerous sick and provident societies, in which there are always found a sufficient number of persons of the same order and average of intelligence with those employed in the Works to superintend (and, altogether, they do so very judiciously) the affairs of such societies. I do not see why the same discretion and capacity should not equally fit them for sharing in the control of a school. The subject has, I admit, its complications, but with the increased interest in education, which active participation in the management of schools could not fail to promote among the masses, I think the sense of injustice which I have found to exist among workmen on the subject of this exclusion, and with it a feeling akin to suspicion of the objects of education itself, would be removed. A judicious share of control in the government of the schools to which they contribute is at least an experiment worthy of being tried.

Increased
activity of
managing
bodies.

As a general observation on school management, I may add, that throughout my district I found a large amount of active interest evinced by committees in the public schools with which they were connected. I was informed, that a great improvement had taken place in this respect on the character of the management in past years. There can be no doubt, as regards Church

schools, that this is to be ascribed to the system of Diocesan and National school inspection, as well as to the increased activity of the promoters of education in connection with the Church, one very marked and beneficial result of which is the establishment of Archdiaconical Associations for giving aid to schools, and otherwise promoting education in their respective dioceses. These Associations and the inspection by Diocesan and National school agents have a widely beneficial influence on the smaller schools which do not avail themselves of Government aid or inspection. This remark applies equally to the inspection of Non-denominational schools by the inspectors and agents of the British and Foreign School Society. I found evidences of the salutary influence of their active exertions in every part of the district which I visited.

Up to a recent period, public feeling in South Wales, so far as the Nonconformist portion of it, constituting the great mass of the population, is concerned, was hostile to the acceptance of Government aid, and, indeed, to legislative interference with education in any form. In no district in the Kingdom were such vigorous and well-combined efforts made for education extension by voluntary means as in the manufacturing and agricultural districts of South Wales some twelve years since. Circumstances to which reference has already been made in noticing the history of the religious movement in Wales enable us to account for the strong feeling entertained by the Welsh people on this subject. In the early efforts for the religious regeneration of the Principality, Dissenters from the Established Church took the lead, and the voluntary agencies which they put forth have accomplished so much, the success attendant on them has, as exemplified in their Sunday school, been so signal and great, despite the obstacles they had to surmount, and the formidable opposition they had to contend with—that confidence in the adequacy of independent efforts to educate a population, and suspicion of interference with freedom of religious opinion, were feelings very naturally engendered under such influences as they had been subjected to. Their objection to State education stated fully was, that inasmuch as in education religious should be combined with secular instruction, legislative interference with education implied a violation of the principle of non-interference with religion. This feeling, evoked by the attempted legislation of 1842, and quickened into still greater activity by subsequent measures and discussions on them in Parliament, led to the attempt at securing for the population education by purely voluntary effort on a very extensive scale, contemplating the establishment not only of a Normal College, but the provision of additional school facilities throughout the various counties of South Wales. These anticipations were, however, not realised. The Normal College was opened for the training of teachers, and for some years appears to have been supported by public subscriptions; but, notwithstanding that it was initiated under circumstances in every way favourable to its success, that it was sanctioned by all the influence which the Dissenting ministers of South Wales could

State of opinions on Government assistance and interference.

Efforts made in Wales to educate on the voluntary principle.

bring to its support, its early prospects and promises of pecuniary support were equally doomed to disappointment. The present position of the college is thus described in a report on the state of the school, presented to the Department of Science and Art by Dr. Lyon Playfair and Captain Fowke, who inspected the school in December, 1857:—"The Normal College was commenced at Brecon as a training college only; it was removed to Swansea in 1848, three years after its foundation; and in 1851, owing to the pecuniary failure of the committee, the Principal began the system of taking first private pupils, then boarders," &c. The College is now therefore conducted on the individual responsibility of the Principal.

The efforts to establish self-supporting schools throughout the country were characterised by similar zeal and energy to those put forth on behalf of the training institution, and for the most part were attended with similar results. Many of the schools which were either originated on the principle of voluntary support, or the committees of which opposed the acceptance of Government grants, subsequently availed themselves of their aid; among them were the Non-denominational schools in Neath, Hirwain, and Heol-y-felin (Aberdare). A few of the schools still maintain the character of public schools, but considerable numbers have merged into private schools. The great body of Nonconformists in North Wales do not appear to have entertained these scruples against public grants in aid of education, but from the first availed themselves of the conditions of the Committee of Council on Education, wherever they were in a position to comply with them.

Change in
public feeling
on Government
aid.

Subsequently to these events, it appears that an extensive change in public feeling has taken place in reference to Government aid for education extension. How far this change is due to the experience gained in the past, as well as to a more intimate appreciation of the inadequacy of the unaided resources of this country to the education of its population, will be best inferred from the evidence. Its tenor undoubtedly indicates, as a matter of fact, a general opinion of the insufficiency of voluntary effort, and, consequent on this, a feeling in favour of accepting Government aid from the Committee of Council on Education, as being, under *existing circumstances*, the only available means of meeting that deficiency in the supply of education to the Welsh people, which seems to be a fact admitted in all quarters. One feature may be added as characterising the information given on this head—that it embodies the opinions of men of various religious denominations, and occupying different positions in life, and among them many who some years since were not only zealous advocates of voluntary education, but who took an active part in the movement against State aid and interference.

Present views
on Government
interference.

I should, however, be doing injustice to the views of a large body of the Nonconformists of South Wales, if I did not state that the admission of the general principle of State aid implies neither unanimous nor unqualified approval on their part of the existing mechanism for dispensing it. On the contrary, I believe

that the reception of grants may be taken as a submission to existing arrangements rather than an unhesitating concurrence with them. Out of the ranks of voluntarism there seems to be a great variety of opinions on this head of State aid and interference. Many, indeed, wholly approve of the existing administration of public aid by the Committee of Privy Council, but the general feeling is opposed to it on the ground either of its inadequacy to the work of educating a whole people, or of its implying legislative interference with religious instruction. I found that considerable numbers, even of the Nonconformists who accepted the grant, admitted the illogical position in which they stood in receiving aid on conditions which, it is alleged by their voluntary brethren, imply compulsory religious instruction, though it is irrespective of doctrinal distinctions. The separation of religious from secular instruction has also its advocates, though, numerically speaking, they constitute a small proportion to the great mass of the public, who may be said to be so far favourable to religious instruction in day schools, as to give a preference to the Scriptures being read in the schools. I am, however, only correctly representing the general feeling throughout the unions I have visited, in saying that it so far inclines to separate religious instruction from the ordinary routine of the day school, as to hold the Sunday school and place of worship the first in importance—so far as public teaching goes—its principal source of reliance as a means of religious training.

The views of the Welsh clergy, and of the great bulk of the portion of the population connected with the Established Church, were, as might be expected, in favour of Government aid; and I believe I am correctly representing their opinions in adding, although many among them may entertain objections to special provisions in the Minutes of the Committee of Council, such as their adaptation to the peculiar features of the country, they are, on the general principle, favourable to the existing machinery for the furtherance of education in connection with the Privy Council.

No feature elicited in the course of this inquiry has been more marked than the tendency of the Government grants to enable schools to which aid is extended successfully to compete with unassisted public, and not less with private-venture schools. In Merionethshire, more especially, private schools for the education of the labouring classes may be said to have entirely disappeared from most of its towns, as well as from extensive rural districts. In the whole Union of Bala there is not a private school. In the town of Dolgelly I found one private school with twenty pupils only; it was a girls' school. In Corwen and other towns the rapid diminution or entire disappearance of these schools was pointed out to me as one of the results of the establishment of public schools, either British or National, with Government aid. Nor is this competition limited to schools in which the labouring classes receive instruction; it is equally fatal in its influence on middle-class schools, both for males and females. In the public schools in towns throughout the North Wales Unions the sons and daughters of tradesmen and other sections of the middle class

Opinions on
State aid in the
Established
Church.

Successful com-
petition of
assisted, with
unaided public
schools.

are found in large proportions to those of the labouring and working classes. These schools, in point of fact, assume much of the character of "Common schools," in which all distinction of social gradation is merged in an education common to all. As it respects female education, this fusion of the private in the public school is in North Wales, where the schools are "mixed," attended with one marked result—the absence of special instruction for girls, both of the middle and working classes. The schools in this district generally—almost universally—are superintended by masters, and the only special branch of female instruction given in them is "sewing," for which a mistress is generally engaged, who attends the school twice or thrice a week. I need not point out how serious a defect this is in the educational system of North Wales. Its influence on the character of mothers or wives of the coming generation must be such that no mere attainments can compensate for it. The girl from these schools enters life without the knowledge proper to woman's sphere of duty; and, what is more important, without the development or culture of those sensibilities of her nature, by which she is enabled, as sister, wife, or mother, to diffuse happiness over the circle in which she moves, or to render home a sacred refuge from the cares of the world by making it the abode of comfort and of affection. The extent to which this social evil, for such I deem it, prevails in this part of my district may be estimated from the following facts, communicated to me by persons well qualified by observation to give an opinion on the subject. A leading tradesman in one of the towns of Merionethshire informed me that there was not one girls' school in the town in which he resided; and that he and others who were in a position to do so were obliged to send their daughters "to England" to obtain such an education as would be suitable to girls. Those, he added, who had not the means were compelled to put up with the ordinary instruction of the public schools of the town. The establishment of the public schools had broken up the private schools, and, so far as the special education of girls was concerned, had left them worse off than they were formerly. This information was confirmed by that of the master of a British School in the same town, who said that in consequence of the establishment of his school the private schools had been closed, and there was no special provision for the education of girls. He himself was 'so deeply impressed with the inadequacy of his own school to meet the requirements of female education that he contemplated establishing a girls' school under the superintendence of his wife—the education in common branches to be given in the public school.

In the agricultural districts of South Wales there is the same deficiency in the means of special education for females. In the manufacturing districts it is not found to so great an extent, but still it is a deficiency. It is, in fact, a general feature of the whole of the Welsh Specimen District, and it is one which demands the most mature deliberation on the remedy to be applied to it. If the question were one of mere supply and demand, the suggestion of that remedy would be at hand, but such is not the case.

In the great majority of instances it is inability, from the poverty of the country, to provide the additional machinery implied in the separate education of the sexes, which compels the adoption of "mixed education." The additional schoolroom, teacher, and other requisites involve an additional outlay, which the people in poor districts where voluntary effort, even assisted by public grants, has already taxed its utmost energies in providing a "mixed school"—are unable to comply with. But, while I think inability to comply with the demand for the increased expenditure is the general obstacle to the separate education of the sexes, I must observe that, where, as I found in some instances, needlessly extensive buildings have been erected for mixed schools, a more judicious outlay might have secured for the female portion of the population the advantages of special instruction. I have no hesitation in saying that the erection of schoolrooms on a scale needlessly in excess of the average attendance is not only a great oversight on the part of the promoters, but at once an unjustifiable expenditure of the public money where a grant is made, and a waste of voluntary energies which might be employed for more useful ends. An excess of school accommodation, as compared with the average attendance of about 42 or 43 per cent. in districts in which the census returns in past years do not justify the anticipation of any corresponding increase of population, is a proceeding for which, in my opinion, no defence can be offered; as it is one which demands the interposition of authority in cases in which a portion of the outlay is made from the public money.

In South Wales the competition of public schools, aided by grants, with private adventure schools for the working classes, has been attended with similar results to those which I have had occasion to notice in the case of the schools of North Wales, but the superior schools of this class do not appear to have been affected by the competition. In some instances, however, this competition has told with marked effect on the inferior middle-class schools. In the notes made of the schools visited there are continuous entries, of which the following are specimens:—

In the Neath Union:—Girls' day school, "ruined by National and British Schools. A school (Girls) in Furnace Row, given up on account of competition of public schools and bad pay."—Girls' School, "diminished on account of National School;" another, "reduced by National School." At Aberavon, "languishing because of the public schools."

In the Merthyr Union:—"All schools in Penywaun languishing because of the Company's school." "Three Dame schools closed on account of the Works schools at Cefncoed-y-cymmer." "All schools in Dowlais languishing, and two at Penwaun-fawr given up on account of the Dowlais Company's schools."

The following is a general entry made by the clerk after visiting the densely populated districts in the neighbourhood of Aberdare, in the Merthyr Union:—"I have found fewer schools than I expected; several have been given up. Mrs. — has

Results of competition on private adventure schools in South Wales.

“ given up her school at Cwmdare; Mrs. — and Mr. — in Mill Street; and Miss — in Robertstown. The general reason alleged is ‘that they do not pay.’ There are two causes for this:—1st, they could not maintain their ground in competing with the public schools; 2nd, the strike of colliers along the valley obliged them to contract pecuniary obligations, which the parents could not meet. Penywaun had once a school, and has still a schoolhouse. The giving up of the former I attribute to “ the public schools.”

This catalogue of schools defunct, or languishing, might, if space permitted it, be considerably extended. The schools referred to are not merely Dame schools, but that order of schools which occupy an intermediate position between the middle-class school and the school to which the working and labouring classes send their children; they are situated in thriving and populous districts, and have therefore a wider area for maintaining competition than if they were located in thinly populated neighbourhoods.

Results on un-
assisted public
schools.

The competition between unaided public schools and those which accept the grant appear to be attended, to the former, with the same results as in private schools. In North Wales, the establishment of a superior school in a neighbourhood, with Government aid, has in some cases had an attendant disadvantage of a minor degree, in closing the subscription schools in the less densely populated country districts around it. The decadence of the country schools in these instances is brought about by the transfer of a portion of the elder scholars to the superior school at a distance. In the case of a defunct school in the Union of Bala, one of its principal supporters informed me that he and his neighbours had made strenuous efforts to establish a school in the village, in order to give their children the advantages of education without being under the necessity of sending them from home. It was the only school available to a population scattered over an area of from three to four miles. The school for a time was successful, but the establishment of another school with Government aid, about three miles distant, had drawn off the older scholars, and, with them, the support which many of the parents had given to the school.

Defective pro-
vision for the
education of
younger
children.

In this case I may observe, that the children of the district, who were too young to be sent to a school at the distance of some three miles, must have been left without any means of education till they arrived at eight or nine years of age. I very frequently, in North Wales, found this absence of educational provision for younger children in neighbourhoods at a distance from the locality where a large public school had been established. Its practical effect is to defer the commencement of the work of education up to the age of eight and nine years—a serious loss, when it is considered that the whole school period, even in the agricultural districts, does not extend over four years, without deducting its frequent interruptions; and that in this case the children have, in addition to the ordinary difficulties of learning, to surmount those also which arise from their ignorance of the English language. In fact, we have

here a feature characterising the workings of the existing conditions of dispensing Government grants for the promotion of education. It aids the establishment of schools and the support of education in towns and populous districts, but it leaves the poor, remote, and thinly populated neighbourhoods in their primitive ignorance. We may point to bright spots where, under the present administration of public grants, beneficial and even signal results have been attained; but we cannot forget, nor is it safe so to do, that around them are many dreary wastes, in an educational point of view—neighbourhoods in which the school is unknown, or otherwise, where, from the distance of the school, a large portion of the population have the school period stinted to a term wholly inadequate to enable those who are sent to it to attain any really useful learning. I do not here discuss the question whether these defects are inherent in the system of “supplementing voluntary effort by public grants;” I simply call attention to the fact of the unequal distribution of educational provision. If any change in the conditions on which assistance is given can meet this state of things it ought undoubtedly to be attempted; and, if successful, it would not only remove a great social evil, but one of the objections urged against the principle of the present system—that it is inadequate to the work of educating the whole population.

The facts which have fallen under my observation in the course of this inquiry appear to indicate that Government aid has stimulated voluntary effort for the promotion of education—so far at least as to widen the sphere within which voluntary agency for this object was previously limited. In this district the result is shown not only in the building or establishment of new schools, but in the substitution of better schools for those which previously existed in the same neighbourhoods, and to which the contributions had previously been comparatively trifling. I give one case communicated to me, out of many which I could cite in illustration of the stimulating effect of the prospect of a good school on voluntary contribution. In a remote parish of Merionethshire, the subscriptions to a school which had been established for some years amounted to 1*l.* per annum, the salary of the teacher was low, and the quality of the education which the school afforded, was on a level with the remuneration of the master. It was suggested that the resources of the neighbourhood were equal to raising a fund which, with the assistance of a grant from the Committee of Council on Education, would be adequate to the erection of suitable school buildings, and that annual subscriptions might be calculated upon, which, with the augmentation grant, would be equal to providing a salary for a competent master. Efforts accordingly were made, and in the prospect of securing a good school for the neighbourhood, an amount was raised with which, aided by the grant from Government, excellent school buildings were erected. The school is now highly efficient, and the annual contributions at present are 20*l.* a year. In this case, the prospect of having a good school induced parties to contribute

How far
Government aid
stimulates vo-
luntary effort.

to the building fund, who probably would not have given subscriptions for such an object had the school been of the same inferior order as that which had previously existed. The experience by the public of the benefits which the school, since its establishment, had conferred on the neighbourhood may fairly be presumed to have had its influence in increasing the amount of annual subscriptions, or at least in maintaining it. It is one of the advantages of Government grants that they enable a school to pass through the difficulties which are attendant on its first establishment—the period of want of confidence in or appreciation of its benefits, and to arrive at that stage when its results secure for it a more extended and less fluctuating voluntary support from the public. Many of the most flourishing schools in North Wales, and some in South Wales, owe their present status to the gradual extension of public support, consequent upon experience of the beneficial results of the education they give. It must, in looking at this subject, be recollected that public schools are mainly supported by subscriptions from the middle class; and where a school proves by its results that it confers benefits on the neighbourhood, as much support from that class as is necessary to its maintenance may in all cases be calculated upon. It becomes an established institution, which they will make efforts not to lose. It is further to be considered that the prospect of securing grants either in aid of building or for the augmentation of masters' salaries, leads to voluntary efforts for the establishment of new schools in districts in which without aid no efforts would be made. When the amount necessary with aid to provide education for a neighbourhood is reasonably within its resources efforts will naturally be made to raise it so as to meet the grant; but without the expectancy of aid, the merely voluntary resources in many localities are unequal to the attainment of the object, so that the effort is looked upon as hopeless; the attempt is therefore never made. In both North and South Wales there were localities where the great mass of the population were labourers, and the proportion of the classes who could contribute to the establishment and maintenance of a school was comparatively so small that an attempt to raise a school equal to the requirements of the population was out of the question, and therefore was not attempted. But the prospect of obtaining the grant subsequently stimulated efforts which have resulted in the establishment of an efficient school. In one instance I was informed by a clergyman in South Wales that he had established a school in a portion of his parish in which the attempt would not have been made had they, and those who co-operated with him, not had a prospect of aid from the Committee of Council on Education. From facts which came to my knowledge in the course of this inquiry, I have no doubt that a very considerable number of districts, both in North and South Wales, which at present have no school provision, would make efforts to establish schools if the conditions of the public grant were such that their resources would enable them to avail themselves of its assistance.

The influence of Government aid, then, on voluntary effort appears to have been so far beneficial as to secure for education a more extended support from the public in those neighbourhoods in which schools have been established or maintained by public grants, as well as in leading to efforts being put forth for the establishment of schools in districts where, without assistance, no attempts of the kind would have been made. But, while from the facts that have come under my observation in the course of this inquiry, I think grants thus stimulate voluntary exertions for the building of schools and the support of masters, I must admit the tendency of the system to operate prejudicially on voluntary effort. I refer to the building of one feature in the existing system, if not to supersede, at least to obliterate. In towns and populous districts, where "capitation grants for regular attendance, and the capitation grant there are facilities for a large item in the receipts of public schools, consequently to be some danger of committees or other managers there appearing much on this resource for making up the common fund of the school. If the accuracy of the returns to Table 9, Circular M, are to be at all relied upon, I must conclude that there are remarkable discrepancies between the amount of voluntary subscriptions raised in different districts, looking at their comparative population, wealth, and other circumstances. In one instance—a town in North Wales,—the amount of annual subscriptions to a large public school appears to be about 18*l.* a year, while in a country school in its immediate neighbourhood, the subscriptions are 24*l.* In the case of another town school the voluntary contributions are returned at 20*l.* a year; in a rural district in its immediate neighbourhood they are represented as amounting to 30*l.* a year. Such facts—which seem to indicate a relaxation of voluntary effort—at least suggest an inquiry into the operation of "capitation grants" on voluntary contributions for the support of schools.

In the course of this inquiry objections were made on various grounds, to the administration of the Government grant by the Committee of Council on Education.

Objections to the Administration of Government grants.

Among these, the required average attendance of one hundred and seventy-six days as a condition of sharing in the Capitation Grant is objected to as being unsuited to country districts, particularly to thinly populated localities, where the scholars attending schools are generally drafted from a population which is scattered over an area extending to a distance of from two to three miles from the schoolhouse. In the agricultural districts, both of North and South Wales, the principal school season is winter; in summer the elder children, both of farmers and of the labouring population, are taken from school to assist their parents on the farm, or in other work. In some localities this temporary withdrawal prevails to such an extent that it is the practice to close the schools altogether for some three or four months, till the harvest and other leading agricultural operations of the year have been brought to a termination. Even in winter, from the mountainous character of a large portion of the country, attendance in the school is, especially during the severer portion of the season, subject to

THE CAPITATION GRANT.

Objections to the 176 days average attendance.

to the building fund, who probably would not have given subscriptions for such an object had the school been of the same inferior order as that which had previously existed. The experience by the public of the benefits which the school, since its establishment, had conferred on the neighbourhood may fairly be presumed to have had its influence in increasing the amount of annual subscriptions, or at least in maintaining it. It is one of the advantages of Government grants that they enable a school to pass through the difficulties which are attendant on its first establishment—the period of want of confidence in or appreciation of its benefits, and to arrive at that stage when its results secure for it a more extended and less fluctuating voluntary support from the public. Many of the most flourishing schools in North Wales, and some in South Wales, owe their present status to the gradual extension of public support, consequent upon experience of the beneficial results of the education they give. It must, in looking at this subject, be recollected that public schools are mainly supported by subscriptions from the middle class; and where a school proves by its results that it confers benefits on the neighbourhood, as much support from that class as is necessary to its maintenance may in all cases be calculated upon. It becomes an established institution, which they will make efforts not to lose. It is further to be considered that the prospect of securing grants either in aid of building or for the augmentation of masters' salaries, leads to voluntary efforts for the establishment of new schools in districts in which without aid no efforts would be made. When the amount necessary with aid to provide education for a neighbourhood is reasonably within its resources efforts will naturally be made to raise it so as to meet the grant; but without the expectancy of aid, the merely voluntary resources in many localities are unequal to the attainment of the object, so that the effort is looked upon as hopeless; the attempt is therefore never made. In both North and South Wales there were localities where the great mass of the population were labourers, and the proportion of the classes who could contribute to the establishment and maintenance of a school was comparatively so small that an attempt to raise a school equal to the requirements of the population was out of the question, and therefore was not attempted. But the prospect of obtaining the grant subsequently stimulated efforts which have resulted in the establishment of an efficient school. In one instance I was informed by a clergyman in South Wales that he had established a school in a portion of his parish in which the attempt would not have been made had they, and those who co-operated with him, not had a prospect of aid from the Committee of Council on Education. From facts which came to my knowledge in the course of this inquiry, I have no doubt that a very considerable number of districts, both in North and South Wales, which at present have no school provision, would make efforts to establish schools if the conditions of the public grant were such that their resources would enable them to avail themselves of its assistance.

The influence of Government aid, then, on voluntary effort appears to have been so far beneficial as to secure for education a more extended support from the public in those neighbourhoods in which schools have been established or maintained by public grants, as well as in leading to efforts being put forth for the establishment of schools in districts where, without assistance, no attempts of the kind would have been made. But, while from the facts that have come under my observation in the course of this inquiry, I think grants thus stimulate voluntary exertions for the building of schools and the support of masters, I must admit the tendency of one feature in the existing system, if not to supersede, at least to operate prejudicially on voluntary effort. I refer to "capitation grants." In towns and populous districts, where there are facilities for regular attendance, and the capitation grant consequently forms a large item in the receipts of public schools, there appears to be some danger of committees or other managers relying too much on this resource for making up the common fund of the school. If the accuracy of the returns to Table 9, Circular M, are to be at all relied upon, I must conclude that there are remarkable discrepancies between the amount of voluntary subscriptions raised in different districts, looking at their comparative population, wealth, and other circumstances. In one instance—a town in North Wales,—the amount of annual subscriptions to a large public school appears to be about 18*l.* a year, while in a country school in its immediate neighbourhood, the subscriptions are 24*l.* In the case of another town school the voluntary contributions are returned at 20*l.* a year; in a rural district in its immediate neighbourhood they are represented as amounting to 30*l.* a year. Such facts—which seem to indicate a relaxation of voluntary effort—at least suggest an inquiry into the operation of "capitation grants" on voluntary contributions for the support of schools.

In the course of this inquiry objections were made on various grounds, to the administration of the Government grant by the Committee of Council on Education.

Among these, the required average attendance of one hundred and seventy-six days as a condition of sharing in the Capitation Grant is objected to as being unsuited to country districts, particularly to thinly populated localities, where the scholars attending schools are generally drafted from a population which is scattered over an area extending to a distance of from two to three miles from the schoolhouse. In the agricultural districts, both of North and South Wales, the principal school season is winter; in summer the elder children, both of farmers and of the labouring population, are taken from school to assist their parents on the farm, or in other work. In some localities this temporary withdrawal prevails to such an extent that it is the practice to close the schools altogether for some three or four months, till the harvest and other leading agricultural operations of the year have been brought to a termination. Even in winter, from the mountainous character of a large portion of the country, attendance in the school is, especially during the severer portion of the season, subject to

Objections to the Administration of Government grants.

THE CAPITATION GRANT.

Objections to the 176 days average attendance.

continual interruptions from weather, and other causes which are beyond control. From the opportunities of observation which I have had, I believe this objection to be well founded, and that the practical result of the existing requirements as to number of days is, that, while the capitation grant finds its way to towns and populous places where it is least wanted, the country or rural districts which need it most are deprived of the aid which it was contemplated it should afford them; and this arises from insisting on the uniformity of a rule which seems to have been suggested by the facility with which children can be sent regularly to a school along the well-paved streets of a town, and where the great body of the scholars is contributed by a few streets in the immediate vicinity of the school building. It is indeed evident, that, if 176 days are considered a fair average attendance for a town school, the average for country districts should be taken at a lower number. To admit this would be to imply that the facilities for attendance are equal in both cases; or, to put the matter in another way, if the 176 days' attendance is not more than a fair demand for a school in the rural districts, a greater number of days should be required in towns and other localities where obstructing causes of the unavoidable class are by no means so numerous.

A less number of days should be required for schools in rural districts.

The remedy for a requirement which deprives poor districts of this aid from the public funds appropriated to the encouragement of education is to lessen in their case the number of days over which the average attendance is made to extend. In point of fact, we have a precedent for such a reduction in the modification of the average attendance in schools to which children employed in factories are sent, where 80 only, instead of 176, whole days are required from boys above 10 years of age. If this judicious regard to the circumstances of the scholars is to be recommended in the one case why not in the other, where the circumstances are equally imperative, and where the object sought—the extension of educational advantages to those who are presumed to be most in need of them—is precisely the same. The proportion of population to the square mile, would furnish the basis of the distinction between the districts to which the requirement of the greater or less number of days should be applied. I think it would be expedient also to meet the circumstances under which a thinner attendance in country schools takes place in summer, so far as to divide the capitation grant into two parts—appropriating one to a summer and the other to a winter half year. The present distribution of the 176 days over the whole year, deprives country schools of the advantages of the regular attendance of that large portion of elder scholars who are almost invariably withdrawn in the beginning of the summer, to be employed in agricultural labour. They, too, are the scholars who are found to attend most regularly during their school term, as well from other causes as that they are not so subject to interruptions as the younger children in country schools are from weather and other causes, rare especially in mountainous and other districts, in which the means of passing from one place to another are difficult.

Objections have also been taken to other conditions of the capitation grant—such as the income of the school in the preceding year, required by the first condition, and the limitation of the grant to schools in which the masters or mistresses are certificated. The first objection is founded on the alleged unfitness of the condition to the circumstances of poor districts, in the schools of which the income from all sources often does not amount to 14s. per head for boys, nor 12s. for girls. The result is, in practice, the exclusion of schools in rural districts, where the population are either labourers or small farmers, from any participation in the aid derived from capitation grants. This applies especially to the “subscription schools” which are established by the co-operation of labourers and small farmers, independently of support from landowners or the gentry.

The limitation of the capitation grant to schools in which the masters or mistresses must be either certificated or registered is objected to on the ground of its excluding a large class of meritorious schools, which are unable to comply with this condition—as well as on the more general principle that the limitation is so far from being called for by the objects of the grant, that it leaves education without assistance in those districts to which it is most important that aid should be afforded. The observations I have made in the course of this inquiry lead me to the conclusion that an extension of the capitation grant so as to include all schools in part or wholly supported by subscriptions, on the condition of submitting to inspection, would tend to the promotion of education, and to the improvement of its quality in rural districts, where the population is too poor to provide the salary necessary to secure the services of a certificated or registered teacher. In many of them nothing is required but the pecuniary means to secure for them a good education; and I entertain no doubt that the aid which the capitation grant would afford, would be devoted to the improvement of its character, either by the appointment of more competent teachers, or by increasing the efficiency of the educational machinery of the school in some form or other. The responsibility on the part of the teacher, which is implied in the surveillance of inspection and the examination, would have a highly favourable influence in the improvement of the teacher as well as of the education given in these schools. It is, I think, of the highest importance that some portion of the Government grant should find its way to such districts as I refer to, in order to stimulate educational effort; and an easy mode presents itself of effecting this desirable object through the capitation grant, if such conditions as I have alluded to—and which are not essential to its success—were dispensed with. By the extension of capitation grants to “subscription” and schools of a similar class in the rural districts of Wales—on the simple conditions of inspection and of their being maintained over the year to which the grant extended, the promoters would be able to secure the services of a more competent class of masters; and, there is little doubt that the recent Minute of the Committee of Council, by which

Objections to other conditions of the capitation grant.

Limitation of capitation grant to schools with certificated or registered masters and mistresses.

probationary teachers are, in certain cases, rendered eligible to take the charge of schools, would, with this aid, be extensively had recourse to in the schools throughout the poorer agricultural districts of this country.

Statement of
objections to
requirements
for school
buildings.

But, to no objection to the administration of the Government grant was my attention more frequently directed, in the course of this inquiry, than to the requirements of the Committee of Council in the erection of school buildings and masters' residences. The complaints made on this head may be briefly summed up by saying, that the requirements are neither consistent with the condition of the country—the poverty of many of its agricultural districts, nor demanded by the habits and wants of its population. In the more remote agricultural districts of both North and South Wales, where the population is not only thinly scattered over the surface of the country, but poor, these conditions amount to a practical denial of all aid; and even in the more wealthy manufacturing districts, are considered to be serious obstacles to the diffusion of education among the masses. As examples of these objections, I refer to the requirement of materials, *e. g.*, timber of a certain kind, as well as other details of buildings,*—concerning which it is said, that, though they may with consistency be demanded under certain circumstances and in certain localities, such as those to which I refer, in others they are not required, and involve an additional outlay, which the promoters of country schools, more especially in poor districts, are unable to comply with. Similar objections have been made to the requirements for masters' dwelling houses. Details are too much insisted upon, and converted into general rules, without regard to the peculiar circumstances of localities, or the habits and usages of the people. This, in many cases, adds very considerably to the cost at which suitable buildings could be erected, for persons occupying the same position in life as the school teacher. In one case, I was informed by a landowner in South Wales, who is an active and liberal promoter of education in the parishes with which he is connected by property ties—that some of the requirements as to materials for the erection of a residence for the master of a school of which he is the principal supporter, were such as he should consider to be necessary only in a large mansion. As it respects school buildings, the observation has been made to me, on more than one occasion, that the compliance with the conditions involved a greater outlay on the part of the promoters than if they had not availed themselves of the Government grant. In one instance, which is referred to in the evidence, it appears that the promoters of a public school in a village in North Wales found that the requirements of the Committee of Council added so much to the cost of erecting a schoolhouse that they determined on providing a suitable building without aid. A commodious schoolhouse, in every respect adequate to the educational wants of the

* "Regulations as to Buildings to be erected with the aid of a Grant," pp. 6 and 7 of Consolidated Minutes.

locality, was, in consequence of this determination, erected by subscriptions raised in the neighbourhood.

The objections to which I have referred appear to indicate one common defect in the requirements of the Committee of Council as to grants in aid of building—a want of flexibility in their adaptation to local features and conditions. On examining them they evidently are too much matters of detail to be made general rules, applicable to all districts of the kingdom—whether rich or poor—whether densely or thinly populated. As long as the voluntary principle forms one essential element in the existing system of promoting education—the conditions and requirements on which Government aid to that element is dispensed, should be adapted to the circumstances, usages, and, above all, to the capacity of voluntary effort which the different districts of the country are capable of making. It is evident that the requirements for the grant in aid of building do not fulfil this condition. Take one example—the requirement of boarded floors for school-rooms. There are districts, such as those near the sea coast—and others in which timber can be procured cheaply—where such a requirement is not only reasonable but proper, inasmuch as the classes who send their children to the public school have so far progressed in domestic comfort as to use boarded floors in their houses or cottages, and there is no reason why the school should be less comfortable than home—it should be equally so; but there are other districts where, from the cost of conveyance and other circumstances, a board-floor is never seen in the cottages of the poorer classes, and very frequently not in the houses of classes above them; but where this requirement is, nevertheless, stringently insisted upon by the Committee of Council, and the children of the working classes who have never trodden, and probably never will, after their school days, tread any other than a flagged, brick, or mortared floor, in the school find themselves for the first time on boarded floors, and display as much awkwardness, and give evidence of as much discomfort, as novices usually do. In such cases the only result of insisting on board floors, beyond conferring on the scholars an unappreciated luxury, is too often to place a school of any kind beyond the reach of a poor district by the additional outlay which the requirement involves. A condition so special in its character, when unaccompanied by any modification, is calculated to strengthen that dissatisfaction which, in some quarters, has been so loudly expressed at the conditions of the Government grant as defective in their adaptation to the condition of the agricultural districts of Wales.

Similar objections have been urged against the costly character of the designs for buildings which have been passed by the Privy Council authorities, and their want of adaptation, after a large outlay expended in their erection, to the educational requirements of the localities in which they are situated. In some instances the expenditure is complained of as being unnecessary, as in the case of spacious school buildings, which, I was informed, were erected at a cost of 1,200*l.*, in a locality where a building of from 700*l.* to 800*l.* would have been fully equal to the wants

Want of flexibility in the adaptation of the requirements to local circumstances.

Costly character of school buildings.

of the neighbourhood. The plans were objected to upon minor details, but not upon the expensive nature of the general design. I have reason to know that objections of this kind have a strong and prejudicial influence on the views of the general public as to Government aid to, or interference with education. When a large and costly school building, more perhaps than adequate to the educational demands of the neighbourhood, is pointed out to them in contrast with the deficiency of school accommodation in other districts, the conclusion is almost necessary that there must be in the administration of this department of the public monies some defect; and the further inference is, whether well or ill founded, easily made—that it is inherent in the system of Government interference with education, and not a merely incidental evil. But, apart from inferences of this kind, the objections to which I have been alluding, as well as those to the requirements for grants in aid of school buildings, seem to point to the necessity of a change in the method by which the local information, on which the Committee of Council entertains or rejects applications for grants in aid of buildings, is at present obtained. The existing arrangements provide no intervening authority to check the information supplied by local promoters of schools to the Committee of Council, and the machinery for obtaining the information on which a grant is conceded or withheld, is extremely imperfect—leading, on the one hand, to that want of adaptation in school buildings which is the groundwork of so much dissatisfaction, and, on the other, leaving the central authorities to rely solely on the representations of local promoters of schools, or of their architects, for the information on which their decision is founded. While conceding to school committees and promoters as much integrity and honourable feeling as I would to any other class of men, we must not forget that they not unfrequently stand in the position of representatives of other parties or of a cause; and that, where the responsibility of the individual is under such circumstances divided among many, opinions may be formed under the influence of prepossessions—more especially where there is a keen competition between rival systems—where the Church is anxious to see itself represented by the National School, and the Nonconformist is equally zealous for a British, or Non-denominational, School. So far, indeed, as designs and specifications are concerned, virtually the central authorities have to deal not with committees and promoters, but with local architects, or builders, and the direction which their interests and professional bias lead them to take is obviously that of costly structures. The whole matter, therefore, so far as designs, plans, and other particulars relating to the building are concerned, lies between the local architect and the Government authorities, and, it may be presumed, of their architect. The one prepares an elaborate design, in which, to bring it within the outlay specified by the promoters, every item is estimated at the lowest possible cost—the other introduces changes or modifications better accommodated to a metropolitan scale of requirements than to those of a school in a small town or country

village; and thus, while the outlay for the schoolhouse is found to exceed the original calculation of the promoters, the building itself is either in excess of, or otherwise ill adapted to, the educational requirements of the locality. There is here evidently a link to be supplied in order to establish a more perfect connection in transmitting information from the promoters to the Committee of Council. The appointment of an officer, whose duty it should be, after visiting the locality, to examine into and report on the designs, plans, and other details relating to school buildings, and generally to check, and, if necessary, to correct, the information supplied to the Government authorities by the promoters, would supply what at present is a very marked deficiency. Such an authority, to whom opportunities would be afforded of obtaining a thorough knowledge of such features and circumstances as would enable the Committee of Council to adapt their requirements to local conditions, appears indeed to be one of the essentials in making the existing system of dispensing Government aid through the Committee of Council more widely available to the country at large.

There are, however, two features in the condition of my district by which Government aid, at least under the existing regulations for dispensing it, is rendered ineffective in the diffusion of education among a large proportion of the population. I refer to the fact of a poor population being thinly distributed over large portions of the area of the country, and to the want of united action in the educational movement, arising from denominational or rather religious differences. These features apply so extensively, not only to the "Specimen District," but to Wales, and affect so intimately sections of the community which are more immediately contemplated as objects of any scheme of popular education, that they may be said to constitute the primary difficulties in dealing with the subject of education in the Principality. Till they are surmounted, the existing system of Government aid stands forth as inadequate to the task of the education of the whole population of the country. Though these points may have been incidentally referred to in other portions of the Report, their importance demands that they should be specially, and somewhat more in detail, noticed here.

Distribution of population and religious differences two features affecting education.

The description given, in a former part of this Report, of the general features of the country indicates that large portions of its agricultural districts are occupied by a poor population, thinly scattered over their area. This description, which applies partially only to the South Wales Unions comprised in this inquiry, is the general characteristic of those of North Wales. While the number of the population to the square mile is in England 336, and in Wales 137 persons, in the four Unions in North Wales, we have the following low ranges:—

Proportion of population to the area in North Wales.

Unions.	Population to square mile.		
Dolgelly	-	-	- 57·2
Festiniog	-	-	- 77·1
Bala	-	-	- 74
Corwen	-	-	- 80·9

But even these figures do not give us a full insight into the distribution of population in this part of the country. On going somewhat more into detail on the matter, we find, that in the Poor Law Union sub-district of Talylyn, the number of persons to the square mile is about 44·3, in that of Gwyddelwern 51 persons. Even from these sub-districts we have to deduct the population of villages, and in some cases of towns, in order to determine the actual capacity in reference to educational provision of extensive districts throughout which the inhabitants are still more sparingly distributed.

Support of
education in
thinly popu-
lated districts.

The population in these thinly inhabited districts is composed of agricultural labourers, and of small farmers, generally speaking, little better off than the labourers themselves. Among these are thinly interspersed a few farmers of a higher or somewhat more affluent class; a few small tradesmen or shopkeepers generally found in the village of the district, and the clergyman of the parish or other ministers of religion. This constitutes the total population which can in any way contribute to a provision for education; and when it is considered that in these mountainous and rugged districts a school-house is accessible to the population extending to a radius of from two and a half to three miles only, it will be seen how totally unequal such a district is to making an adequate provision for the educational requirements of its population. What can be expected in the way of subscriptions for school buildings from such a scattered population, composed principally of agricultural labourers and farmers almost on a level with them in a pecuniary point of view? It is, I am informed, only with great difficulty that the 15*l.* or 20*l.* a year, necessary to make up a teacher's salary in the "subscription schools," can be got together; and as for raising 80*l.* or 100*l.*, to erect a school building, it is out of the question—unless by the chance aid of a few subscriptions from parties not resident in the locality. As a general rule, neither the clergy of the Established Church, nor other ministers of religion in these districts, are in a position to give pecuniary aid for the support of education, while the middle class are too small in number, and often too limited in means, adequately to supply the deficiency arising from the poverty and thinness of the other portion of the population. The only remaining sources from which aid in making educational provision for such districts can be expected are the landowners of the country, and the owners of tithes. In a large proportion of cases the latter are either non-residents, and feel little interest in such local features as those which relate to the education of a parish or neighbourhood, or otherwise they are themselves the landowners. With a few exceptions, as has been observed before, landed property in the North Wales portion of this district has been little divided, and is held by a few great proprietors, whose estates in point of extent are small territories, and to large portions of which the proprietors may therefore be said to stand pretty much in the relation of non-residents—comparative strangers to the details of the social condition and requirements of particular

localities of their extensive possessions. As a class, the landowners in this district have neither evinced a strong sympathy with, nor largely aided the furtherance of, education in the localities with which they are connected by property ties. In a few cases, schools have been established, or are principally supported by them; but these schools are generally of a very inferior order, the education given in them is of the least possible value, and the spirit in which they seem to have been conceived is that of antiquated prejudices and narrow exclusiveness. I have elsewhere referred to these schools, and need not, therefore, here give a repetition of examples to illustrate my description. Beyond this, the contributions to education from this source, are a subscription for the school building, with perhaps a site on which to erect it, and the additional annual contribution of a few pounds towards the support of the school. There is nothing that I am aware of in the amount of money contributed by these landlords generally for the support of education, to distinguish their contributions from those of any other class of wealthy men, not in the position of landlords, on occasions of public subscriptions in a neighbourhood; nor is the aid which they render to education such as to compensate for the inability of poor and thinly populated districts to provide education for themselves. As a matter of fact, the voluntary principle seems to be ineffective in its appeals to the great landowners of the district, so far as to enable their neighbourhoods to supply themselves with education. It is from the resident population that the means of supporting or extending education in the agricultural portion of this district are derived; hence it is in the towns and more populous districts where there exists a large middle class to contribute to educational objects, that we find not only the greatest proportion of schools to the population, but the best schools.

Such is the position of large portions of the agricultural section of this district as to its ability to make adequate provision for the education of the population scattered over their respective areas. The difficulties that attend education extension in these extensive but thinly populated localities, leave little room for hesitation in coming to the conclusion that any voluntary efforts of the resident population are unequal, under the existing regulations of Government aid, to supply their educational wants. The aid from other sources, such as contributions from those connected with a locality by property ties, and from others I have already described, and from that description may be inferred how little may be calculated upon in the way of voluntary contributions from them. How far under these circumstances relaxations in the conditions of grants in aid of school buildings, augmentation of masters' salaries, and other changes in dispensing the public money for education extension may remedy these deficiencies, is a question for the definite solution of which we have not sufficient data. It is in fact an experiment which has to be tried, and by which the present system of Government aid, conditional on local voluntary

Inadequate to the education of the population.

effort, must be pronounced equal or inadequate to the work of giving education to the whole people. But, short of this *ultimate* question, much may no doubt be done by such changes in the regulations of the public grants as I have adverted to, and the adoption of suggestions that have been made to meet the difficulties of this case—to mitigate if not wholly to remove the evil. Among these suggestions, that of Her Majesty's Inspector of Church Schools in Wales (the Rev. H. L. Jones) for the appointment of circuit teachers to hold schools in different localities of a thinly populated district, is entitled to the most attentive consideration. There is a class of districts which may be said to occupy an intermediate position between these thinly inhabited districts and those which are more populous, where the resident population are poor. In these, relaxations in the conditions of grants in aid of building, and especially of masters' salaries, would contribute very materially to the more equal distribution of education throughout the agricultural Unions.

The case of education as it respects these thinly populated districts, is, in a social point of view, of great importance; that importance has, perhaps, been somewhat overlooked. Thinly inhabited though they are, it must be recollected that in the aggregate they make up a large amount of population, and as long as they remain without the means of education they will be recesses from which society will suffer in having continuously thrown into it masses of men who are unequal to all the duties which more complicated and advanced social conditions impose upon them.

These remarks do not apply to South Wales.

In the two South Wales Unions the purely agricultural localities form so small a proportion of the district, and even these are so immediately in the neighbourhood of large centres of population, that the remarks I have made on this subject in reference to North Wales cannot be said to apply to them. So far as the landlords of the small portions of these Unions which are agricultural, are concerned, there seems in the south to be a higher appreciation of the value of sound education, and a more thorough disposition to aid its progress. But a large extent of the mountainous and less densely populated portions of these Unions borders on lands let on long leases to the workers of coal and other mining products of the district, who, in this case, stand in the place of the owners of the soil, and generally take upon themselves the duty of making educational provision for the vast masses whom their enterprise has collected on the areas, as described in the portion of the Report referring to Works schools. In the few localities where this facility of access to neighbouring schools does not exist, something, but still comparatively little, has been done towards the establishment of schools.

Division of educational effort in rural districts.

The division and often antagonism of effort originating in the distinction between Church and Dissent—though a feature in the *social* condition of Wales—raises a barrier to the extension of education in this district more insuperable, and presents obstacles to the

educational progress of the country more formidable, than those which arise from its physical character, or from the distribution of population over its area. The mode in which this great retarding influence operates in checking the extension of education in the Principality may be easily understood from a brief description of the condition of the country as to the denominational or religious relations of its population.

The great preponderance of Dissent throughout Wales has been before referred to. In country districts, particularly in the rural districts of North Wales, the numerical superiority of the Dissenters is literally overpowering, nearly the whole of the labouring classes and a vast majority of the farmers belonging to some one or other of its denominations. On the other hand, the landowners and gentry, and some, but not a large, proportion of the middle class, adhere to the Established Church. The great proportion of power to aid education extension in these districts is therefore found in the Church; the vast majority, whose conscientious opinions or feelings have to be consulted in order to render the education given available to them, are of other denominations. Hence, as the landlords and gentry generally support schools conducted on Church principles in preference to those in which the religious instruction is non-denominational, there is an element of conflict between the numerical preponderance and the wealthier classes wherever an effort is made in a country district for education extension. A school on the open principle is projected in a country parish; it secures the support of the mass of the population, but as it has neither countenance nor aid from those who have the pecuniary resources, the small subscriptions of the farmers and farm labourers are insufficient to carry out the scheme, and it either turns out a failure, or otherwise merges into one of those very inefficient subscription schools which I have elsewhere described. On the other hand, it is not unfrequently the case that the school is initiated by the clergyman or other parties connected with the Church; the money may in this case be raised, but often not without difficulty, as the absence of support from the general population renders heavier the pecuniary demand on the few. The site is secured, probably given, the building raised, but if the Catechism is insisted upon the school is generally only half attended. Where the resources of the population are not equal to raising another school the Catechism is sometimes reluctantly submitted to, but as frequently a school more in unison with the feelings of the population is established in the immediate neighbourhood, to the detriment of the efficiency of both schools in districts in which one is adequate to meet the educational requirements of the whole population. In many instances the result of this antagonism has been to keep all education in a neighbourhood in abeyance, and not unfrequently to leave it for years without any educational provision, each party singly being unable, for the reasons above given, to establish a school without the co-operation of the other; and this takes place in localities in which the united efforts of

Educational
resources of
Church and
Dissent.

all would be not more than adequate to provide the means of education for the poor or thinly distributed population which inhabits them. Under these circumstances the religious phase which Government aid to education assumes under the present system, by its recognition of the distinction between the "Church" and the "Congregation," tends to render stronger or more active this antagonism of effort, and thus to defeat its own object. It is at least certain that no direct opposition to Government aid or interference has so much impeded education extension in Wales, and particularly in North Wales, where there is among all parties a strong feeling in favour of accepting Government aid, as this division of effort, which the basis on which aid is given tends to countenance and indirectly to foster.

Establishment
of opposition
schools in
thinly popu-
lated districts.

To one fact illustrative of the operation of the Government grant, under its present regulations, on this divided educational action I call particular attention, inasmuch as it tends to produce results highly prejudicial to education in thinly populated rural districts. I refer to the establishment of two schools where one is amply sufficient to meet the educational requirements of the locality. In towns and populous districts the rivalry of National and British Schools within certain limits may be only a healthy stimulant to competition, but in such districts as I refer to the necessary result is not only to divide the pecuniary support, but to spoil two schools where one would be efficient. The consequences are to be lamented from whatever source the opposition may proceed, nor is there any justification for the attempt in such districts to establish a second school, National or other, where one already exists, except such an imposition on all who enter the school of forms of religious teaching which cannot conscientiously be conformed with; and however fully the conditions of public grants may be complied with, their concession to such schools proves that there is a radical error in the principle which by recognising keeps alive influences hostile to the social welfare. This is illustrated in the case of Beddgelert, where two public schools, a British and a National School, have been erected on immediately contiguous spots, both schools being available only to a population of from 400 to 500 persons, in a parish containing a population by the last census returns of 1,200, leaving a population of from 600 to 700 without any adequate provision for education. Assuming, as I must, that the information is correct on which the concession of the Government grant is made, the objection lies against a mode of administering the grant which permits such anomalies to arise in dispensing it. There can be no doubt as to the manner in which the funds for the second or surplus school were got together; that its promoters raised the required voluntary contributions from two sources, indicated in the Minutes of the Committee of Council, (Consolidated Minutes, p. 5,) "the contributions of persons interested in property in the district, whether resident or not," and "contributions collected by the promoters from private funds,

or other charitable persons at a distance." The conditions of the Minute are by this means complied with, so far as the raising of a certain amount by voluntary contribution is concerned, but the Minute itself, as it appears in the official publication, seems defective in not requiring other elements to be taken into consideration in dispensing the grant, *e. g.*, the physical features of the district in which the school is to be established, the population to which it will be available, the existing provision for education, and the statistics of religious worship. If satisfactory information on these several points were made indispensable to a grant in aid of building being conceded, some at least of the evils to which I have referred would be avoided. I make this remark with the reservation, that such information is not implied in the portion of the Minute which sets forth that the Committee of Council require "to be satisfied with the urgency of the case."

In the Beddgelert case one would naturally be curious to ascertain how the urgency is in this instance made out.

The only feasible remedy that can be suggested for this opposition of effort for education extension in the poorer and less populous districts of this country, is to be sought in the adoption of some one common principle, with a view to unite, without recognition of any distinction, Church and Dissent. The adoption, *e. g.*, of a scheme in which, in addition to the practice—common to both National and British Schools, of reading a portion of the Scriptures daily, general religious instruction should be embodied in some special course of reading, such as the books of the Irish Commissioners, would probably, so far as the mere religious instruction is concerned, meet the requirements of the case, more especially when carried out by a constitution of the managing body, which should fairly represent all parties, and be a guarantee for strict impartiality in carrying out the administration of the scheme. A committee elected by the body of school supporters and parents—of which all ministers of religion should be *ex officio* members—and the officiating clergyman of the parish chairman, would probably supply such a constitution.

Looking to the state of opinion, and at the actual practice in reference to religious instruction in Wales, it appears to me that some such scheme as I have adverted to has the fairest chance of securing the united action of all parties in the work of education in the agricultural districts. On the part of the Dissenters, it would remove the objections which they entertain to the instruction of their children in the Church Catechism. As it respects the Church, we may form some estimate of the state of feeling among supporters of schools connected with it, from a fact elsewhere alluded to, that by far the largest proportion of Church or National schools, in practice, either make instruction in the Catechism voluntary to the children of Dissenters, or otherwise teach only those portions of it which embody views common to all denominations; and this is done under the eye and with the direct sanction of the clergy. In reference to the feelings of this body, whose co-
Probable success of the scheme.

tion in any scheme for combined effort is of the greatest importance, I believe that I am justly representing the tendency of opinion among the clergy in saying, that it is in favour of dispensing in schools with the special points of instruction which interfere with a common education. The very fact of the relaxation in the use of the Church Catechism to which I have just referred, is a proof of the existence of this feeling. In South Wales the practice is almost universal, and in the large schools of North Wales it is not only a general but an increasing practice. I do not, therefore, see what would be lost to the supporters of Church schools by their acquiescence in such a scheme as I have adverted to, and which in practice they substantially adopt in by far the greater proportion of their own National Schools. It meets a feeling which I have heard urged in favour of National or Church schools by their supporters,—the necessity of religious instruction being definite in its character; and I can scarcely conceive that where this feeling is consulted, opposition would be offered to any scheme calculated to heal divisions which are attended with such prejudicial results to education extension in Wales.

The initiative should be on the part of Government.

But whatever may be the particular mode adopted with a view to combined action for the extension of education in the agricultural districts of the Principality, I have no hesitation in saying, that so far as public grants are concerned, the Committee of Council should take the initiative by laying down as one of the essential conditions of grants in thinly populated localities, that any religious instruction given in the school should not interfere with the admission to it of the children of parents of any denomination. It should be recollected, that in these districts, the establishment of a public school so far creates a monopoly, that with the aid of the grant it excludes other schools from being established in the same neighbourhood. It is simply therefore a measure of justice in dispensing grants of public money, that a condition of this nature should be insisted on; otherwise, those who conscientiously dissent from the denominational instruction of the school, are left without redress—in fact, left in a worse position than if the grant had not been made.

I have ventured to call attention at some length to this subject, as it is of the highest importance to the promotion of education in the rural districts of the Principality. If combined action on the subject of religious instruction cannot be effected, large portions of Wales must either be left without the means of efficient education, or the only other alternative must be had recourse to, a school system of which religious instruction shall form no part.

Beneficial influence of Government inspection.

In concluding the observations I have had occasion to make on this subject of Government aid, I feel that I should not fully discharge my duty if I did not point out a feature indicated throughout the evidence,—the very general satisfaction expressed at the results of school inspection under the authority of the Committee of Council on Education. Whatever objections may have

been urged against the system, or present administration of Government aid, the testimony of all parties, however widely differing on other points, seems to be concurrent on the salutary influence exercised, not only on schoolmasters, but even on committees, by the visits and examination of schools by Her Majesty's Inspectors. In more than one instance, even the Principals of private schools, in adverting to the subject, have expressed to me their regret that no machinery of the kind has been devised, which would enable them to avail themselves of the advantages which a system of impartial inspection would confer equally on themselves and on the public. My own experience in this inquiry confirms the favourable impression made on others of the beneficial character of this inspection. In the inspected schools which I visited, I uniformly found an activity on the part of the teachers, and an interest on that of the scholars which showed how deeply the sense of responsibility which is implied in inspection pervaded the whole of the educational machinery. Facts were communicated to me by masters which proved how much they were indebted to the suggestions resulting from the visits of the inspectors for improvements which they had effected in the methods and subject-matter of instruction, and in the general conduct of their schools. Nor is it to school teachers only that these salutary influences of inspection extend; they are equally apparent in their operation on school committees and promoters; for inspection has for them its responsibilities, and creates for them an interest in the welfare of the school and the progress of the scholars, secondary only to that which it has for teachers. As it respects the general public, the tendency of the system is to induce confidence that an adequate return is made for their contributions, in the effective education of which the approval of the inspector is received as a guarantee, and hence to lead to a wider and a better regulated, because more constant, support of the institutions from which sound and beneficial results are anticipated.

In South Wales a prominent feature in the finance of schools is the assessment levied on the workmen employed in collieries, iron, copper, and other Works for the support of the schools established in connection with them. Reference has already been made to this mode of raising a revenue for educational objects, and it is therefore only necessary here to add that the schools in this case are not supported by voluntary contributions, but by a charge on the earnings of the workmen in the form of a poundage, or by the deduction of a sum, amounting to from a penny to three halfpence per head, from their weekly wages. This assessment is levied from all who are employed in the works, even young and unmarried men and boys contributing towards the school fund; though, in some works, not in the same proportion as those who are married. The money is "stopped" at the time of the payment of wages. In some instances, a consideration for their contributions is given to the unmarried portion of those employed in the works by the establishment of an evening school, to which

Support of
colliery and
other works
schools.

those engaged in labour during the day have access. The school buildings are erected by the proprietors, or, as is more frequently the case, a building which the proprietors or company have at disposal is appropriated to the purposes of a school-house, and the cost of fittings and furniture is usually defrayed by them. In works, where the number of men employed does not suffice to raise contributions for the support of separate schools, the assessment is paid over to a school in the neighbourhood, for the education of the children of parents connected with the works. In some instances, too, contributions from this fund are made, by the proprietors, to schools for the convenience of workmen who reside at too great a distance for their children to attend the school connected with the works.

Imperfection of
financial re-
turns of Works
schools.

Such are the broad outlines of this mode of supporting educational establishments in the manufacturing districts of South Wales. It has in many of its features so close an affinity to taxation for the support of education, that it becomes an inquiry of some interest how far it is, in a financial point of view, successful in accomplishing the object which it contemplates. It is much to be regretted that the tables which exhibit the financial condition of public schools are, so far as the Works schools are concerned, so defectively and obscurely returned. In a considerable number of cases the return is a mere blank, and in other instances the revenue obtained by the assessment of the workmen is so mixed up with other sources of income, that it cannot be relied upon for statistical purposes. Any attempt to deduce conclusions from such data would only mislead us. In the absence therefore of the more direct information furnished by figures, we must have recourse to such isolated facts and indications as will assist us to make a general inference on the subject. We have one example of a school returning an income arising from this taxation of the workmen, of 157*l.* a year against an expenditure of 147*l.* over the same period; another, of 56*l.* income against 43*l.* expenditure; and another of 172*l.* against 137*l.* In these instances the revenue obtained by means of the assessment appears to be equal to defraying the ordinary cost of maintaining the schools. In connection with these statements, we have another fact which indicates the adequacy of this mode of obtaining a revenue to the support of education,—that a considerable proportion of the schools connected with Works do not accept Government grants; out of 35 public schools of this class in the two South Wales Unions, 14 do not avail themselves of the aid of the public money. Apart from the advantages resulting from inspection, and the superiority of the pupil-teacher to the monitorial system, these schools generally are superior to the ordinary self-supporting schools of the country; the masters are, taken altogether, more competent and better remunerated. It may at least be said that, whatever deficiencies they may exhibit, they do not arise from financial causes, but from a want of appreciation of what constitutes, rather than a want of means of providing, a sound and effective education. In the case of many

of the schools which accepted grants, I was informed that the proprietors had been induced to connect the schools with the Committee of Council on Education, not from financial considerations, but with a view to secure the advantages of pupil-teachers, and to place the masters under efficient responsibility for the discharge of their educational duties. In some instances which have fallen under my observation, I have grounds for stating that the public money received for the remuneration of pupil-teachers and capitation grants is not applied to supply deficiencies in the ordinary revenue of the schools; but that it, or an equivalent amount, is expended in giving increased educational efficiency to the school by the supply of apparatus, the appointment of additional masters, or other means of raising the character of its education. In one school, equally distinguished for its excellence and for the munificence in all matters pertaining to education of the company which established it, the teaching power is wholly supplied by a staff of able assistant masters at a scale of remuneration, of course greatly exceeding that which would be incurred by the employment of pupil-teachers, but securing at the same time for the scholars incomparably superior advantages to those which it would be possible to obtain with pupil-teachers. As, in no single case that fell under my notice, did I find that any objection to the principle of receiving Government aid influenced the proprietors of works, I think it is a fair presumption that the revenue raised by assessment on the wages of the workmen was sufficient to defray the costs of the schools; and this view is confirmed by the simple calculation, that, if in a Works 600 persons subscribed 1*d.* a week each, it would amount in the year to 130*l.* Deducting the young men and boys from those employed, the number of children supplied to the school may be assumed as not exceeding 120; the salary of the master would be about 70*l.* a year, and the payment of monitors or assistants about 30*l.* This would, exclusive of rent of premises, leave about 30*l.* a year for the provision of school furniture, books, and other ordinary expenses. This estimate will, I think, fairly apply to the Works schools in country districts, in which the education is of a medium quality. At all events, I feel some confidence, from my knowledge of these schools, that I have not under-estimated any element in the calculation.

Without affirming, then, that in all cases this method of obtaining Inference. a revenue for the support of schools is equal to the cost of their maintenance, I think we have sufficient data in the facts above referred to, to illustrate the advantages of a support of education by the distribution over large numbers of small payments, and, in a financial point of view, to indicate a conclusion favourable to general taxation for educational purposes. And if, turning from this to another view of the subject, we look at the condition of the population among which these schools are established, and the many unfavourable obstacles to its educational progress from continuous immigration and other circumstances alluded to in a former

part of this Report, we must admit that they have effected much for the education of the masses whose condition they are intended to ameliorate, although, from the recent period to which their establishment dates, they as yet require time to develop all that they are capable of accomplishing. I may even go further, and say, that—valuable as Government aid may be as an additional element to this method of supporting education, it would not have been possible to produce equal results by the existing system of voluntary agency supplemented by Government assistance, which this mode of raising a school revenue has effected. I may here incidentally remark that it is to be borne in mind, in looking at the educational capacity of the two South Wales Unions, that the Works schools remove a vast burden of educational claims which would otherwise press on the voluntary agencies, aided or unaided by Government, of the population of these manufacturing districts.

School fees in private schools.

In the district of my inquiry public schools afford the only data on which we can ground general conclusions as to the operation of school fees on popular education. In North Wales private schools are not only so few in number, but so restricted to the middle classes, that any observations on the system of school fees adopted by them would be irrelevant to the object of this Report. In the South Wales portion of the district by far the greatest proportion of private schools are those either for the education of the middle classes or otherwise contain an intermixed class of scholars, composed of the children of tradesmen and of the higher order of the industrial class, *e. g.*, the children of skilled artisans. After deducting these, we have remaining, with a few exceptions, only schools for young children, most of them of the order of dame schools, but a few of them holding an intermediate position between the dame and the ordinary juvenile schools; both classes of schools, I may observe, are in process of rapid disappearance under the advance which public schools are making throughout the country. In the mixed schools to which I have referred the school fees, which are often paid quarterly, are at a rate varying from 2*d.* to 6*d.*, and even 8*d.*, a week. In addition, the scholars usually provide their own books. In the dame schools the general school fee is 1*d.* a week, but occasionally the fees paid by a more advanced order were 2*d.* a week for each child. In the schools occupying a class above these—intermediate schools—principally for girls, the fees ranged from 1*d.* to 3*d.* and 4*d.* a week; the higher charge appearing to be in consideration of special attention being given to the pupil, who was generally of the middle class. This outline exhibits as correct a statement of the case of fees in private schools as it is possible to approximate to on a subject on which variety was almost infinite.

The table given beneath shows the per-centage of 2,775 scholars in public week-day schools in the North Wales Unions, and of 4,860 scholars in the South Wales Unions, who paid the under-mentioned school fees:—

	Number of Schools that made Returns.	Number of Scholars in the foregoing Schools who made payments.	PER-CENTAGE of the foregoing Number of Scholars paying the under-mentioned Weekly School Fees.						
			One Penny and less than Two-pence.	Two-pence and less than Three-pence.	Three-pence and less than Four-pence.	Four-pence and less than Five-pence.	Five-pence and less than Six-pence.	Six-pence.	Above Six-pence.
North Wales Unions	41	2,775	57.4	25.	8.5	4.7	.69	.61	.04
South Wales Unions	42	4,560	66.7	29.6	5.8	4.8	.24	.45	1.4

These per-centages, in point of fact, exhibit the proportions of the several grades that compose the constituency of these schools, massed together under the general designation of the working or industrial classes, and of the varied ability of these grades to contribute to the education of their children. In public schools, in towns, I found that where the school fee was not under 2*d.* a week, a very large proportion of the scholars were the children of either skilled artisans or of small shopkeepers; those of the labouring class being comparatively few in number. In several towns, in British and in some National Schools this was the lowest school fee, the children of parents who could not afford to pay the two, being admitted as special cases, *e.g.*, the children of widows, either on payment of a lower fee or free. The 2*d.* and higher charges seem to preponderate as a practice with British and Non-denominational schools, and there is in connection with this feature a general fact, borne out by the testimony of masters, both of Non-denominational and National Schools—that *the former are generally attended by children of a more respectable or higher grade of the working classes*, than the latter. In one instance, in a town in the South Wales portion of the district, a British School had adopted the 2*d.* fee, while the National School had charged 1*d.* The British School was described to me as being attended by a more respectable class of children, *i.e.* of the children of the higher order of the industrial classes and of small tradesmen. The managers of the National School seeing that their neighbours had a large school at the higher fee, under pecuniary pressure, determined on raising their price to 2*d.* a week. The experiment had been acted upon for the first time in the week in which I visited the school—too early for me to ascertain the result. It may possibly succeed so far as to be attended with no diminution in mere numbers, for there may be a sufficient number of that class of the working population who can pay the advanced fee to supply both schools. But mere numbers do not settle the question. We have further to inquire whether this advance in the school fee will not be attended with a change in the composition of the school, so far as the grade of scholars is concerned? Will it not recruit diminished numbers in a lower by drafts from a higher order of the industrious class—by the substitution of the children of the artisan or the shopkeeper for those

of the unskilled labourer? Both schools, I may observe, were in receipt of the Government grants in augmentation of masters' salaries, capitation, and for remuneration of pupil-teachers; and both had received liberal grants in aid of building, while the National School enjoyed in addition the support of an endowment.

The fees impede the diffusion of education.

It is due to the managers and promoters of public schools to state that I believe the higher fee is with them a necessity consequent on the inadequacy of their resources to maintain their schools except by advanced charges. It is a necessity, however, which suggests the consideration whether the existing system of mixed voluntary agency and Government aid in proportion to it, is equal to the work of educating those who constitute, properly speaking, the labouring classes of the community. In the case of the two schools to which I have referred, one has a considerable building debt remaining unpaid, and the other, though backed by an endowment, is equally unfortunate in its monetary position. But this does not lessen the force of the fact that a school, the lowest weekly payment for each scholar in which is 2*d.*, does not offer an educational provision which will, under present circumstances, be had recourse to to any extent by the great body of the working classes—by those most needing education—by those who, unhappily, will make the slightest sacrifices to procure it for their children. The fact is, that a large proportion of our public schools for the professed education of “the poor” are really schools only for sections of the working classes, and those the better-off sections. They are not available to the vast mass of unskilled labourers found equally in our town and country districts; or if in some sense available, it is under circumstances which, on minute inquiry, will be found to throw obstacles in the way of that general diffusion of education which, it is desirable, should be found among us. Take the case of a common labourer, earning at most some 1*6s.* or 1*8s.* a week. He has probably three children of school-going ages. At 2*d.* a week the amount of school fees he would have to pay would be 6*d.* a week, or, admitting that the second and third of the children are taken at a penny fee, it would be 4*d.* What is the actual practice in such a case? The older children are sent to school, and the youngest kept at home, and when a certain age has been attained the eldest is withdrawn and the youngest substituted for it. Thus the high fee leads to the abridgment of the term of education, and to the perpetuation among the unskilled labour class of an educational inferiority to the social duties which even their station imposes upon them.

Can the scale of fees be raised?

To the question whether the scale of fees can be raised safely for the interests of the school, in proportion to the character of the education given, there can, so far as this district is concerned, be no hesitation in replying in the negative. The cases in which an experiment of the kind would be successful, would imply, on the part of the great bulk of the population, either a pecuniary ability, or an appreciation of the comparative value of education, which assuredly is not to be found among them at present. A correspondent advance in the price, with improvement in the cha-

acter, of education might be appreciated by particular sections of the great industrial body, but it would have a deteriorating result in the promotion of its spread among the masses, either from actual pecuniary inability, or from want of appreciation of its value to their offspring. I refer in thus speaking more particularly to the state of feeling on the subject as it exists in the manufacturing districts. The case of the higher as contrasted with the lower school fee, is in fact analogous, I may say, precisely similar, to that of the high priced newspaper and its penny contemporary. The former has its constituency, but it is evident that the latter finds a class of readers among those to whom the higher price of the other renders it inaccessible.

With respect to the popularity of the system of school fees, the facts which I have been able to glean present no data on which to base any very definite conclusion. With the exception of the Works schools in South Wales, the mode of payment in which I have previously described, six cases only of schools without fees presented themselves to me in the course of my inquiry. Of these, four were schools in remote districts, where the population had no alternative to that of leaving the children uneducated, but to send them to the free schools. In one of the two remaining schools the people of a large village in North Wales had to choose between a British School, in which a penny fee was paid, and another in which education was given without any school fee. The number of scholars in the British School was one hundred and eighty-five, and in the other school one hundred and fifty-one. The master of the latter himself informed me that the poorer children in the neighbourhood were sent to his school, and that in the other, or British School, there were many children of the better class of workmen, as well as those of tradesmen, *i.e.*, of shopkeepers. With the exception of a subscription society for clothing in the free school there was not, so far as I could trace it, any feature to account for this difference except the fees. In the other instance referred to, the same difference of grade marked the scholars attending the free and the pay school. While data of this kind are too few to admit of a conclusion being founded on them, other considerations induce me to infer that, with a large mass of the labouring class the penny fee is an obstacle to their sending their children to school. There is a large section of this class, who are indisposed to make the slightest sacrifice, either pecuniary or otherwise, for the education of their children; and it is upon this class that any fee operates as a restrictive influence on the diffusion of education among the masses. As to other sections of the industrious classes, they seem so far to appreciate the advantages of education as to acquiesce in the penny fee. It is by no means, however, so evident to me that fees are so popular with them as it is that an increase on that amount would have an unfavourable influence on the spread of education among them. The maximum school fee that should be demanded from any one household, whatever the number of children sent from it to the school, should not exceed 2*d.* a week, and even this would, I fear, be very extensively

Are school fees popular?

a check on large masses of the labouring classes availing themselves of the advantages of school provision for their children.

Interest in education not dependent on school fees.

In the general discussion on this subject, much I believe that has been said of the influence of school fees in inducing parents to set a higher value upon, and take greater interest in the education of their children, has been taken for granted. So far as the experience I have obtained in the course of this inquiry goes, I have been able to collect no facts which clearly establish increased interest in education on the part of the industrious classes with money payments. On the contrary, looking to the facts connected with our National and British Schools—payment of fees, and the constitution of their committees, I am disposed to attribute any want of interest on the part of parents to a cause to which I have already adverted,—their having no part in the management of the schools; and I am confirmed in this view of the matter by what I have observed in the Welsh Sunday Schools, in which participation in the management by all of adult years is the prevailing feature, and where interest in its religious education is almost universal.

School buildings.

My idea of a good school building is, that it should be a substantial plain house, sufficiently capacious to afford ample accommodation for the children in its neighbourhood who might be expected to attend, well supplied with light, containing the requisites of good ventilation, dryness, and warmth, and furnished in every instance with benches and desks; for these last appear to me to be as necessary to the comfort and health of the scholars as to the right performance of educational functions.

Public Schools.

In these simple requisites many of the Public Schools which I visited in South Wales, are deficient. Some are without desks, and in many others, where these have been provided, they are placed only along the walls of the schools, and set apart exclusively for writing and arithmetic. They cannot, therefore, be of the slightest advantage to the younger portion of the pupils, who, naturally, most require their aid, and who, in consequence of the weariness produced without them, are thoroughly unfitted for exerting the vigorous attention necessary for successful learning. This arrangement of having forms without desks I regard as extremely defective as it affects the comfort of all, and reprehensible also, as it relates to the health of the younger scholars.

Private Schools.

In Private Schools, the defect on which I have animadverted is strikingly apparent. The great majority of them are wanting in those school requisites which are absolutely essential; this statement holds good even in regard to the more respectable class of private schools. It would be difficult to say what amount of ill health in young persons of weak constitutions originates in the neglect of conductors of schools to make suitable provision for the ease of children forced to sit many hours daily at their lessons.

Other Schools.

In Dame Schools, and Private Schools of an inferior grade, the defect to which I have referred is of universal occurrence. These are all (or very nearly all) held in houses of very humble pretensions, and frequently in the kitchens. The better class of Dame

schools are generally well attended—much beyond their means of accommodation, so that the air breathed by the scholars must be of a tainted description. Insufficient room and bad ventilation lead to the generation and consumption of poison by the pupils, which must produce deleterious results, mental and physical; and this I do not hesitate to affirm is the case with regard to the schools now under consideration. In most cases adverse circumstances have driven their conductors to the work of teaching to enable them to make, or eke out, a scanty livelihood. Of course, in such cases, their pecuniary resources do not enable them, even if they had the taste, to provide suitable accommodation for children, and the consequence is, that the schoolroom is often a nest of squalor, and its atmosphere so foul as to be absolutely repulsive. This being the case—it cannot be reasonably doubted that a vast amount of mischief is done in these human cages, many of which are without proper seats, all without proper desks, and a sufficient supply of light and pure air. Of course, ordinary school requisites are not possessed, and could not be used in such places. Education cannot advance beyond the simplest rudiments. The climate is too ungenial for the “young idea to shoot;” and the apartment, misnamed a “school,” might with greater propriety be designated “a nursery of disease.” There is a large number of such schools in Merthyr Tydfil and its neighbourhood. The reason of this probably is, that well-attended and, as in Dowlais, splendid and successful Works schools, have been established there. These are, to a large extent, if not altogether, of an exclusive character. They generally admit only the children of those employed by the company to which they belong; and the result is, that the children of working men not in the service of a company are obliged to accept whatever scanty and imperfect education may be offered to them, or receive none at all. A large constituency in such a locality would be necessary to support a properly qualified teacher, but this, under the circumstances, it would be impossible to obtain. In manufacturing districts, Works Schools are giving important assistance in the work of popular education. The buildings of this class in the district traversed in South Wales present a great variety. The Dowlais Company's school is splendid, maintained in excellent order, and conducted with praiseworthy efficiency. Many others are very good, commodious, and substantial structures, and they may justly be regarded as a great advance on the way to provide comfortable school accommodation for instructing the children of the working population. Some, however, are merely old store or lumber rooms; in one instance the schoolroom had been a stable loft, through the floor of which ammonia was rising unchecked from the manure beneath; while another had its privies in such a filthy condition, and so close to the schoolroom, that the stench penetrated into it. A Public Health officer would unquestionably have reported it as a nuisance.

In North Wales, notwithstanding that considerable improvement has been made in the erections of late years, there is a large proportion of the school buildings of the country not only

School buildings in North Wales.

ineffective for educational purposes, but devoid even of ordinary comfort. In many of the rural schools a damp earth floor is added to the inconveniences of roofs—very often thatched roofs—not always impermeable by either rain or wind. This remark is especially applicable to the smaller charity or endowed schools, the endowment being either too small, or the trustees having no power to apply any portion of it to the building or reparation of the school-house. The “subscription schools” got up by the farmers and agricultural labourers have buildings of the same kind, where they are not, as is often the case, held in chapels, the use of which is given for the purpose—both churches and chapels being frequently appropriated to the holding of schools in this part of the country. In some instances I found schools, which were represented to me as being supported by a neighbouring land-owner or other resident gentry, held in private rooms, in comfortless cottages approaching the level of hovels, where the children were crowded in numbers utterly disproportionate to the space that ought to be allotted to them.

School fittings and furniture.

The fittings and furnishing of this class of schools were on a level with the school buildings. Beyond benches, and occasionally a few desks, but more frequently without desks, these schools were literally devoid of anything deserving the name of either fittings or furniture. Where the schools were held in a chapel or church, the “pews” generally supplied the place of benches and desks; but in some instances separate benches were placed, on which the scholars sat, in some portion of the building which afforded vacant space sufficient to accommodate them. With regard to the arrangement of the fittings, with a view to classification and other features of convenience in conducting the schools, there was none; and, looking to the fact that classification, even of the rudest kind, is seldom thought of in these schools, I could not expect that any provision for it should have been contemplated.

School buildings in towns and more populous rural districts.

In the towns and more populous rural districts, there is an evident disposition to improvement both in the suitability of school buildings to the purposes of education, and the health and comfort of the scholars. Such is the case in the slate quarries, both in the North and South of Merionethshire, as well as in the neighbourhoods of the several towns. The school buildings erected with Government aid were generally of the higher order, amply capacious, and furnished with the fittings necessary to comfort and efficiency in the conduct of the schools. In a few instances, defects in the plans of the buildings, and of the arrangements of fittings to meet local requirements, were pointed out to me, which appear to confirm an opinion, elsewhere referred to, of the necessity of some superintending authority conversant with the locality, being appointed to report on the designs and specifications accompanying applications for grants, from the public money, in aid of building.

General remark on adaptation of schools to organisation.

With regard to the adaptation of the internal arrangements of schools to that of classes, I observe, as a general remark, applicable to the best public schools of both North and South Wales, that my inquiries on this point have resulted in a conclusion, that the

particular system adopted is of less importance than the competency of the master to the work of organising a school. The arrangements approved of by the Committee of Council, and other systems that have been suggested as to the classification of schools, have their several recommendations, but there is not one of them in which defects may not be pointed out, and inconveniences suggested as to their adaptation to the special circumstances of localities. As suggestions from which teachers may borrow useful hints they are important; but, where one system is held forth as being absolutely superior to all others, whether it is British, National, or Government system, it is the application to education of the Procrustean principle, and its tendency is, to induce masters to attach more importance to the means than the end, to cover over intellectual deficiency with the immunities which an imaginary superiority of system gives them. Where the arrangements of a public school are such as secure the least possible interference of the concurrent operations which are going on within its walls, the greatest amount of quiet in their conduct, and where its whole work is as much as possible brought under the eye of the master—the great ends of school organisation are attained, whatever may be the particular system adopted.

The public schools in the district of my inquiry were organised in the spirit of these remarks, which, I may also add, represent the views of the great body of the more experienced school teachers with whom I came into contact. The various arrangements with a view to classification were not so far restricted to any one system as to preclude masters borrowing features from other systems which might suit their special requirements, and there was probably no school which I visited of which more could be said than that it adopted one or two features of one system with others taken from other systems, and very generally with modifications suggested by the masters' individual experience of the requirements of their respective schools. In some of the earlier established Non-denominational schools in North and South Wales the arrangement was that of a series of desks in the middle of the school, the classes, with a view to hearing lessons, being drafted to the sides through the whole length of the schoolroom, on what is usually denominated the old British system. This arrangement, by which a large amount of mechanical work was got through, was attended with the inconvenience of a continued din and noise throughout the schoolroom, most unfavourable to those who had to study and not simply to repeat a lesson. In the British Schools more recently established most of the modern arrangements, by which this objectionable feature in the old system is got rid of, have been adopted. In the National Schools I found the organisation very perfect, both as it respected insuring the amount of work to be done, and the quiet and general order with which the business of the school was conducted. The arrangements approved of by the Committee of Council were in many schools, both British and National, adopted, but in nearly all cases with modifications suggested by the special requirements of the school. I found galleries or separate class rooms in most of the more recently built public

Organization
of schools in
the district.

schools—more generally the former. The value of “galleries” has, I think, been much over-rated. In schoolrooms of moderate dimensions only they are objectionable, on the score of the noise and interruption which they occasion to the general work of the school. I give a decided preference to a separate class room whenever, as indeed I think it generally can be obtained without much additional outlay. At the same time I regard galleries and class rooms great aids—not essentials, especially in small schools.

I close this subject with the general remark, that, wherever the main conditions which I have stated to be necessary to educational efficiency, and the comfort of the scholars, have been complied with, I have, with scarcely an exception, found a master, fully competent for his duties, who could not, by judicious contrivance, obviate minor defects and inconveniences, which are too often allowed to remain as such by those who have less skill or perseverance in devising means for their removal.

Condition of
schoolmasters.

Many of the points relative to the condition of schoolmasters are referred to under other heads in this Report; I shall here, therefore, limit my observations to such features as have not elsewhere been adverted to.

in the rural
districts of
North Wales.

In the rural districts of North Wales incompetency was a rule applicable to the masters of schools not under inspection, to which there were few exceptions. In the “subscription schools” got up by the farmers and agricultural labourers in order to avoid the inconvenience or expense of sending their children to schools at a great distance, the masters were in some cases broken down mechanics or small tradesmen, but principally young men who were themselves engaged in elementary studies, with a view to qualify themselves for some ulterior calling—most frequently to become ministers of religion. It must be understood, however, that they were only in the first stage of preparation for entering a college; in fact, they were mere farm lads, with a taste for reading, which past opportunities had permitted them to gratify to a very limited extent only. Their acquirements were of the most slender kind,—a limited knowledge of English and of the elementary rules of arithmetic constituting the sole intellectual capital with which they entered on their duties. But, whatever may have been their attainments in other respects, they had received no special preparation for the duties of teaching, while their taking the charge of a school merely as a temporary occupation till an opportunity occurred of advancement to some other calling appeared to divest them of that interest and energy which are necessary to the successful prosecution of the work of education, and produced a greater listlessness in the school than might have been expected from masters who, however scanty their acquirements, had taste and a literary spirit, some portion of which it might have been expected they would have infused into the atmosphere of the schoolroom. Such, however, was not the case. Criticism is, however, disarmed in looking at schools and schoolmasters in this case, as we can only regard them as indicative of the sacrifices of a poor and scattered population to secure the best education in their power,—an evidence of their inability to obtain a better

provision in the absence of aid which they are not in a position to avail themselves of.

In the public schools in the rural districts, supported by the gentry, and in some cases landowners, the masters were found equally, if not more, incompetent than in the case to which I have above referred. Many of them seem to have had no other recommendation for their appointment than their inability from age to follow the avocations to which they had been accustomed in earlier life. In one school which assumed the position of a parish school, provided by a proprietor of the soil of that and several other adjoining parishes, the master had not sufficient knowledge of the English language to comprehend the meaning of the circular delivered to him. In earlier life he had been engaged in working in mines, and was placed in the situation he then occupied through the influence of his brother, who was in the employ of the supporter of the school. In another case I found, in a school connected with a district church, as master, a young man about eighteen years of age, who, up to a very recent period, had been engaged in agricultural labour. Three months schooling was deemed sufficient preparation for his being intrusted with the charge of the only school available to a district of some three miles in extent. In many instances I found, on inquiry, that masters returned themselves as "trained" when they had been three months in an ordinary public day school, particularly if under a certificated master. In a few instances, schools were conducted by mistresses, who, generally speaking, were superior in proficiency to the masters of the same class of schools; but they were able to teach little beyond sewing and reading—the latter very imperfectly. As to competency, they may be placed in the class with the teachers of the superior order of dames' schools found in other parts of this district.

The general scale of remuneration of schoolmasters in these schools scarcely amounts to 12s. a week. Many of them are as low as 8s. or 9s. a week; in a few exceptional cases they rise to 15s. The average, however, does not exceed that of the wages of the agricultural labourers of the districts in which the schools are located.

To this outline of the condition of the schoolmasters in the country districts of North Wales I found a few exceptions in masters of schools unsupported by endowment or by Government grants, who were not only fully equal to their duties, but who had, to long experience, brought all the resources of well-trained minds to bear upon the practical departments of education, with equal credit to themselves and advantage to those whose education was intrusted to their direction. They were, however, exceptions so rare that they scarcely afford a shade of relief to the general description I have above given.

In the same class of schools in the rural districts of the South Wales Unions the aspects of education, so far as they refer to the condition and competency of masters, were of a more cheering character, though leaving much to be wished for in the way of improvement. Such cases of incompetency as I have referred to

Other public schools.

Remuneration of masters.

Schools in rural districts in South Wales.

in the North Wales Unions, where the masters had a knowledge of English so imperfect as to closely approximate to complete ignorance, I met in a few instances, but they were exceptions to a general rule. From inquiries which I was led to make on this point I find that a considerable improvement has taken place in this class of masters during the past ten years, and that it is seldom that a teacher has a school intrusted to his care on no other ground than that he is a disabled workman. But, while these teachers had generally some notion of school organisation, I found that they had been, in many instances, only partially trained or instructed, and that they relied principally on proficiency in one branch—generally arithmetic, for educational development. It must, however, be recollected that I am referring to the rural portions of a district which is essentially manufacturing, and that this representation should not be taken as applying to the condition of teachers in the agricultural districts of South Wales generally. In fact, in the two South Wales Unions which I visited, the public schools, established in connection with the large works and those found in the more populous country neighbourhoods, have, to a considerable extent, absorbed the schools once found in rural districts. The remuneration of the masters in these schools was low—from 12s. to 16s. a week, relatively lower to the average wages of the district than the scale of salaries in the North Wales schools. One subject of continuous complaint in connexion with schools of this class was the frequent change of masters. They were, it was said, continually leaving, after a stay of a year or two at most, either to take situations as clerks or overlookers in some neighbouring works, or otherwise migrating to the towns or more populous districts, where their prospects of remuneration were better.

Masters in
Works schools.

Of the Works schools (exclusive of those accepting the Government grant) in the country districts, the masters exhibited a great variety of grades of competency. In the schools connected principally with the smaller Works, the teachers were in some instances deficient in a knowledge of English and general attainments, arithmetic being the branch in which they were most proficient, and of which they made most use in the schools. In general, however, they were respectable in point of acquirements, and, although many of them were deficient in modern school organisation and methods of teaching, the fact that they had for the most part held their situations for many years had given them an amount of experience which went far towards remedying disadvantages from this source. A few among them were highly efficient masters; and the order which prevailed in their schools, and the general intelligence of the scholars, attested their value as teachers to be not second to that of any masters in the schools which I visited.

Masters of
schools receiv-
ing Govern-
ment grants.

Of the large and yearly increasing class of masters of public schools which receive Government aid, it is only necessary for me here to speak very cursorily, as the questions bearing on their competency relate less to mere attainments than to points that will be more conveniently treated of under other heads. It is due, however, to them, and to the system in connexion with which

they stand, to state, that, as a class, they constitute the most efficient teachers of popular education in this district. In saying this, I would be understood as stating a fact, without reference to causes, and irrespective of defects in the adaptation of their training, in certain cases, to local requirements.

Private schools, throughout the district of my inquiry, form a comparatively small element in the provision for the education of the industrious classes. In North Wales, as has been already stated, they have almost wholly disappeared. In the South Wales Unions a large proportion of the schools in which the children of the working classes receive education are actually mixed schools, in which the children of tradesmen and other sections of the middle class are found intermixed with those of artisans and labourers. The number of private schools, which are exclusively or principally appropriated to popular education are comparatively few. Referring only to this class of schools, and to the mixed schools, the masters of the former have generally received no special training as teachers. They are properly teachers of special branches rather than general educators, and in most cases have previous to their taking up "school keeping" been engaged in other callings. In one of these schools the master was also a blacksmith, and actually carried on the school simultaneously with working at his trade. At the time that I visited the school he was welding a piece of iron, and explaining to a scholar in an adjoining room, between which and that in which the teacher worked was an open doorway, a question in the "Rule of Three in Decimals." In another school of this class the master had been trained in a private school, but his acquirements, in addition to arithmetic, did not appear to be very extensive. In this branch, he, however, appeared to be a skilful teacher; and it is somewhat remarkable, that, although in the midst of a district in which early withdrawal from school is most prevalent, above 12 per cent. of the scholars were of ages ranging from 12 to 15 years. They were, in fact, sent to the school with a view to special preparation in arithmetic for their future occupations. The masters of the mixed schools were in some cases distinguished from those I have noticed by some amount of additional acquirements; in a few cases their attainments were of a very respectable order, but they were often deficient in a knowledge of school management and methods of teaching.

Dame schools in the manufacturing districts of South Wales form a large element in the provision for education, by private schools. They are, for the most part, found in the towns and other centres of a large population. The reason is obvious,—in the populous districts the public schools do not absorb the whole of the school-going portion of the population, but leave a sufficient nucleus to afford as much support as will induce women, whose time is not otherwise occupied, to devote a greater or less portion of it to the duties of a school of this class. Of the competency of this order of so-called teachers it is unnecessary to make any other observation, than that they are, with scarcely an exception, utterly unqualified for the duties of teaching. Out of 52 schools of this kind there were 22 which might be considered as more nurseries for

Masters of private schools.

Teachers in dame schools.

receiving children for the convenience of parents, and in the remaining 30 nothing worthy of the name of education, beyond a little imperfect reading and spelling, was attempted. The only feature of relief afforded in looking at these schools was, that they are rapidly falling away, as the superior education given by the public schools around them is becoming appreciated by the industrious classes. Of this decline I had assurance from the teachers themselves, who generally complained of the "injury" done to them by the public schools. Some were about to give up duties which they ought never to have undertaken, and others represented the remuneration as being so small that they would be glad to avail themselves of an opportunity of exchanging school keeping for some other vocation.

Schoolmasters training institutions in Wales.

There are three training institutions in Wales, receiving Government aid, for preparing masters for the duties of superintendence of public schools, and one, which is unassisted by a public grant, conducted on private responsibility. Prior to the establishment of these schools, such masters of public schools in Wales as obtained preparatory training were under the necessity of repairing to one of the Metropolitan Normal Institutions for such preliminary instruction as was necessary to fit them for taking the charge of a school, at a cost which was attempted to be curtailed by the abridgment of the period of training; this consequently led to a very superficial preparation, and very defective qualifications, on the part of the masters, for the duties of their office.

Number of masters furnished by these institutions.

Of the training institutions, accepting grants in aid, those at Carnarvon in North Wales, and at Carmarthen in South Wales, are under the National Society, while the recently established college for schoolmasters in Bangor, in North Wales, is the only training institution in the principality, receiving Government aid, for masters of Non-denominational or British Schools.

Public school teachers.

The establishment of training colleges in the Principality has been attended with marked improvement in the general character and competency of school teachers as a class. Prior to their institution, the expense of sending a master to England to be trained was so considerable as to render qualified masters available only to towns and the more populous and wealthy districts—the great mass of country schools being compelled by narrowness of means to put up with teachers who had received no preparatory training. The local institutions have rendered accessible the means of training to numbers who, under other circumstances, must have foregone these advantages, and have thus done much towards substituting a class of masters who have received at least some amount of teaching qualification for those who had none.

A fair index to the supply of masters which these colleges are capable of furnishing is, I think, given in the number of students belonging to them, severally, who have annually "passed examination." In the Carmarthen Training Institution, the average number of students who passed examination for the four years 1855-8, was 20·5 per year, and in the Carnarvon Institution 18·2 per year. The return of the Bangor Institution, which was only opened in 1858, and the arrangements of which are not yet sufficiently advanced to permit its receiving a full complement of

students, gives 9 students who have passed examination for last year; but, as it is said to be intended to afford accommodation for 40 students, we may fairly estimate its contribution to the teaching force of the country at 20 masters each year. Of the Normal College at Swansea, I have no data on which to found an estimate, but I am informed that it may send out 18 masters every year. The total supply of masters from all the Welsh training institutions would, therefore, be 76 per year.

Any attempt to form a precise estimate of the relation of this supply to the probable increase of demand for trained teachers in Wales, would be futile. In the present case it would particularly be so, as the district to which this inquiry extends, forms too small a portion of the Principality to enable me to deduce any conclusion on the educational requirements of the whole country. There are, too, so many elements of complication entering into any attempted calculation on this head, and so many contingent circumstances on which the future progress of educational demand in the manufacturing of the district depends, that, if the statistical portion of this inquiry had been on a more extended base than it is, no very satisfactory conclusion could be arrived at. All that I shall venture here to give is, a very rough estimate founded on the returns which have been made from the Unions which constitute the "Welsh Specimen District." Assuming that the same proportion of schools to the population found in the district of this inquiry would apply to all Wales, we may approximately calculate that the number of trained masters required to furnish every public day school in the Principality with one such master would be, exclusive of existing masters who have received training, not less than 450. Without allowing for any losses in the number of masters under training, or for any increase in the demand for education, the present supply from Welsh Normal Institutions would not therefore give a trained master to every public school in Wales in less than six years. But, taking another view of the subject, 32 schoolmasters would be required every year to supply the annual loss in the present number of public masters by death, change of profession, and casualties. This would considerably extend the period of making up the supply, for it would leave an annual surplus of not more than 44 teachers to form the body of masters which would be required to furnish each of the schools of Wales with a qualified or trained teacher. In this attempted approximation at an estimate, I have assumed the educational provision of the country to be simply maintained in the proportion to the population shown in Table II., and I have therefore not taken into account the establishment of additional schools which, especially in the manufacturing districts of South Wales, are so rapidly multiplying, as a necessary consequence, both of the development of the natural resources of the country, and of the inroads of the public school on the lower order of private schools. Taking into the account these elements of a progressively increasing demand, we may conclude that the existing resources for the supply of trained schoolmasters are inadequate to the requirements of the Principality, and the defi-

Proportion of
supply to the
demand.

ciency can therefore only be made up by having recourse to the training institutions of England. But it is only in exceptional cases, and those cases are few, in which the English trained master can advantageously superintend a school in Wales. Apart from the difficulties which difference of language throws around him, the habits, conventional uscs, and the mode of dealing with the people, render it on every ground desirable that, at least as a general rule, the schools of Wales should be supplied with Welsh trained teachers. There can be, therefore, I think, no doubt of the desirability of increasing the resources for normal instruction in Wales, particularly in South Wales, as it respects the demand consequent on the increase both of National and Non-denominational schools. Whether this is best done by the extension of the capabilities of existing, or by the establishment of new institutions, is a question of detail; the great fact being, that the training institutions, with their existing means of accommodation, are unequal to meet the educational wants of the country.

Remuneration
of trained
masters in
remote dis-
tricts.

In immediate connection with this subject I must, however, observe, that there is a difficulty in adjusting the existing order of trained schoolmasters to the condition of the poor and thinly populated districts of Wales, and they form a large proportion of the whole of the Principality. The masters educated in these Normal Institutions look for a higher remuneration for their services than the schools, in the districts to which I refer, can give, and the result is, practically, that a very inconsiderable portion of the advantages derived from training institutions falls to the lot of the poorer schools in agricultural localities. The education given in these institutions opens to the student callings more remunerative than that of a country schoolmaster; and he, consequently, either leaves the profession for which he has received preparatory training, if he is not fortunate enough to secure an appointment in a school in a populous district where the professional emolument answers his expectations. Under these circumstances it becomes a question of great importance, whether a change in the standard of attainments for masters of schools in agricultural districts is not necessary, in order to secure for them the benefits of an improved order of masters. There can be no doubt that this would increase the supply of that class of masters who are required for country schools; and would thus, I think, be attended generally with beneficial results to education in poor and remote districts of the country. I may add to this the additional consideration, that it is doubtful whether the inducements to enter the scholastic profession in connection with the public schools in this country are sufficient to maintain a supply of schoolmasters of the class from which they are at present principally derived, the sons of small farmers and tradesmen in the agricultural districts, and of mechanics or artisans in the manufacturing districts. The demand for trained masters at present tends to exceed the supply, while I am informed, that a small proportion of pupil-teachers is contributed by the schools in the manufacturing districts of South Wales, to the training institutions of the country. It is, therefore, desirable to extend the area of supply for masters; and this

can only effectually be done by falling back on the peasant and labouring classes of the country. But, looking at the disadvantages under which the education of these classes is commenced in ordinary country schools, at the difficulties they would have to surmount in order to come up to the scale of requirements for a "pass examination," the substitution of a lower scale is indispensably necessary to secure this very important object. The facts which fell under my observation during my inquiry lead me to the conclusion that, with the present system of voluntary agency at least, the remote districts of Wales cannot be fully supplied with trained masters of schools but by reducing the standard of requirements; and I have strong doubts whether it may not be necessary to go still further, by making the "pass examination" before Her Majesty's Inspectors, the only preliminary necessary to the student being recognised as a school teacher, without compulsory attendance at a normal institution. In this case, he would obtain the necessary qualifications, either within the walls of a normal college, or from any other sources that may be more available to him.

Ten schools have been returned as endowed schools, of which eight are in North, and two in South Wales,—the number of charities for general purposes, as well as those for education specially, being more numerous in proportion to population in the northern than in the south portion of my district. The endowments are, however, with the exception of those of two grammar schools in North Wales, generally small,—ranging from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 10*l.* annual value. In some instances, the trustees of these schools have taken advantage of the changes which have of late years been made in the law regulating charities, by remodelling the school so as to enable the children of the poorer classes in the town or neighbourhood in which they are located, to avail themselves more extensively of the advantages of education. Such has been the case with Alderman Davies', Gwyn's, and Cross's charities for educational purposes at Neath, where the trustees, with the assistance of voluntary contributions and Government aid, have erected very capacious school buildings. Similar changes have been made in endowed schools at Llwyngwrl and Barmouth in North Wales; and, it is only fair to add that, in all cases, this has been done with such marked advantages to the interests of popular education that it is much to be regretted that the example has not been more extensively followed by the authorities connected with endowed schools, in a similar position.

With a very few such exceptions, the endowed schools for the poor in this district are in so inefficient a state that it is scarcely too strong to apply to it the term disgraceful. They are so many examples of neglect of trust, and often of perversion of object. The masters are appointed with no regard to qualifications for the duties they have to render, and, as a general rule, were found to be unfitted in every sense of the term for the situations they held. Among the most incompetent masters whose schools I had occasion to visit in North Wales, none were more incompetent than some of those I met at the head of endowed schools.

In one school, I found the master surrounded by from fifteen to twenty boys, in a school-house with an earth floor, and a thatched roof which, in wet weather, freely admitted rain. A few benches and a desk composed the whole of the school furniture. The only lesson book was the Bible, from which the children read or essayed to read in English a chapter in Proverbs, but on being questioned did not understand one principal word in the several verses which each scholar had read. The master was old, and he informed me that, with the aid of the endowment of 10*l.* a year, he could, with great difficulty, only realise 7*s.* a week by the "pay scholars" and those on the foundation.

Among the Welsh charities, that of Mrs. or Madame Bevan, from its peculiar features—illustrative of the educational condition of Wales a century ago, claims a notice to which its services in the promotion of education, at least in the present day, do not entitle it. The object of the donor was to diffuse religious instruction on Church principles among the Welsh people. The marked feature in the arrangements of the charity is, that the schools are circulating or ambulatory; the schools (or properly speaking the schoolmasters), after being located in one parish for periods varying, at the discretion of the trustees, from six months to two or three years, being removed to some other parish, often in a distant part of the country. The parishes are selected by the trustees, their decision being principally guided by reports from the visitors. The number of these schools is between thirty and forty (in 1836 the number was twenty-four), and the average amount of salaries paid to the masters is from 25*l.* to 30*l.* a year each. I have heard but one opinion expressed as to this charity, that it is in every way ineffective in the promotion of education.

Tenor of
evidence on
general
charities.

The tenor of the evidence on the general charities indicates that a large proportion of them are given for objects which, with the lapse of time, or changes in the condition and circumstances of society, have fallen into desuetude. Charities to the poorest and oldest persons, for repeating the Catechism, or reading the Bible or Catechism in Welsh, cannot certainly be looked upon as subserving any useful end in a country where the reading of the Bible, and among the Church-going portion of the population the knowledge of the Catechism, is literally almost universal. These benevolent donations evidently apply to a very different condition of the population to that which is now found in the rural districts of Wales. Under the changed state of circumstances it is to be feared that they have too frequently a tendency only to encourage dissimulation on subjects of a sacred character. Equally useless in their mode of application is a numerous class of benefactions in small sums, ranging from 3*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* or 5*s.*, and gifts of a similar nature, to be distributed among the poor or aged on certain days or seasons of the year. With the change that has taken place in the Poor Law, these charities have in some cases become mere "rates in aid of relief," and are positively injurious in their influences on the character of the population among whom they are distributed. All their tendencies are hostile to fostering a spirit of self-dependence and providence among the

labouring classes. The evidence also indicates the important ends which these charities, by a different direction of their resources, might subserve in the education of the poor. Their application to the purposes of education, has, in fact, in many cases been already effected under the recommendation of the Commissioners for inquiring concerning Charities, but in many instances it is to be regretted that, as in the case of Hugh Jones's charity at Llandrillo, these recommendations have not for some unexplained reasons been carried out. (Further Report, Merioneth, p. 549.) But there still remains a large number of charities, both in North and South Wales, not comprised in the recommendations of the Commissioners, which, on the principle which they adopted in directing changes in their application, may be devoted to the purposes of education. The existing legal machinery is, however, complained of as being singularly ineffective for this object. The extension of the jurisdiction of County Courts to cases of charities not exceeding 30*l.* annual income is, indeed, recognised as an important step towards facilitating their conversion to useful purposes; but the County Court has no initiative power in such cases; while the trustees of an abused or neglected charity are, for evident reasons, not the parties likely to make a movement for its reformation or change, nor can the parish vestry be expected to be very zealous in presenting the accounts of a charity, when it is considered what an opportunity a disused charity often affords for relieving a pressure on the parochial rates. As an illustration of the utter worthlessness of leaving the duty of presenting charities to vestries, I may mention the fact that in one County Court circuit, out of 300 charities coming within the requirement from vestries, three informations only were filed in a year. The appointment of an officer for each district or county whose special duty it should be to investigate the accounts of these minor charities periodically, and to report upon them, with authority, under certain regulations, to take initiative proceedings for their application to the purposes of education where the charity has become inusitative, seems one of the steps urgently demanded by the existing state of these benevolently intended but much abused benefactions to the poor.

As the annual income of many of these charities is so small in amount, a suggestion made in the evidence appears to me well worthy of consideration,—that of throwing the smaller benefactions into a common fund for the support of schools in the poor and remote districts of the counties, or other divisions in which they are located. Looking at the number of these obsolete charities scattered over the country, there can be no doubt that, with the aid of Government grants, a large proportion of the thinly populated, and poorer and remote districts of Wales could thus be provided with the means of education. By their existing regulations, indeed, the Committee of Council on Education do not recognise the incomes arising out of endowments in fulfilling conditions of grants; but it is a question whether this rule is one which might not be departed from in the case of small endowments, say from 10*l.* to 15*l.* a year, for building or in

augmentation of salaries, with great advantage to the improvement of education in the agricultural districts. At present, an endowment to the amount of 10*l.* or 15*l.* a year in these districts, is generally, even with aid from pay scholars, just sufficient to give the means of a bare subsistence to an inefficient master, and to keep open an equally inefficient school, where the addition of the grant would secure a master, at least sufficiently competent to obtain for the school better support from pay scholars, and thus raise the character of the education given in it. A consequent beneficial effect which the extension of Government aid to these schools would be attended with, is the inducement it would offer to those entrusted with their management to substitute, for the present, an improved order of teachers, with a view to securing a grant. I confess that—looking to the great advantages which this extension of public grants would confer on districts which most need education, I am at a loss to conceive why the income of an endowed school should not be treated on the principle of a continuous annual subscription, or why “voluntary subscription” should be so stringently adhered to when, as in this case, a departure from routine would secure beneficial results of no ordinary kind.

SUBJECT MATTER OF EDUCATION.—QUALITY.—METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

General improvement in the character of education.

THE character of education, both in North and South Wales, appears from the inquiries I have made, to have undergone considerable improvement within the past ten or a dozen years. During that period, public schools on a large scale have in considerable numbers been substituted for small, and in many cases private schools, which offered so many and such divided claims to the education of the population, that each often only secured sufficient support to insure incompetency in the ill-paid teacher, and worthlessness in the school. From this change has resulted a better paid and higher order of schoolmasters, who, unlike their predecessors, have received more or less preparatory training for their occupation, and hence, improved organisation, methods of instruction, and quality of education, which, if not always coming up to the standard of the requirements of the present times denote considerable advance on the period when organisation and methods were scarcely recognised by the teacher, and the general character of the education given was narrow in range and inferior in quality. Even in private adventure schools, I find this improvement reflected in better, though yet inferior, organisation, in methods of instruction, and to some extent, in breadth of subject matter.

Existing deficiencies.

But to this sketch there are many drawbacks. It is to towns and the more populous districts that the above remarks principally, though not altogether, apply, and to them with large reservations. In the rural districts of North Wales, the large proportion of schools are wanting in all the conditions necessary to good and useful education; and in the same class of localities in South Wales, although not to the same extent, there are still to be found many

schools of what is called the old-fashioned order. Even in the great manufacturing centres of population, in the midst of the large public schools, there are considerable numbers of the rising generation who do not avail themselves of the advantages which they proffer, but who either from ignorance on the part of parents, or other causes, afford sufficient material for the maintenance of numbers of schools, which, in an educational point of view, are altogether valueless. Even in the class of schools, public and private, to which I have referred, as improvements on their predecessors, the character of education is so varied, that the term improvement must be received with the qualification of being used in a comparative sense.

The more detailed remarks I have to offer on the character of education in my district, will be comprised under the heads:—
1. Subject-matter of education. 2. Quality of education, and methods of instruction.

The public schools, in North and South Wales, which come under the category efficient or medium, in addition to the staple branches of instruction—reading, writing, arithmetic, and religious knowledge, include in their course in nearly every instance, geography and English grammar, and more rarely, English history, with, in North Wales, music and drawing, both which, in South Wales, seem to form such inconsiderable elements in the proportions given below, that they may be said to be inappreciable. In the public schools in the rural districts of North Wales, with two or three exceptions, nothing is even professed to be taught beyond English reading, writing, and arithmetic, with sewing in the case of girls; and, in a large proportion of the same class of schools in South Wales, the remark holds equally good if we except an occasional wretched pretext of teaching geography or grammar—the former, consisting in a child picking out of a book and committing to memory a string of the hardest and most unpronounceable names in the pages of a text book on the subject; and the latter, in learning the definitions of the article, noun, adjective, and, what is considered a vast step in progress, of the pronoun and verb. In two schools in North Wales I found the education limited to learning to read in the Welsh language—in one, English was not permitted to be taught till a series of some six catechisms and a perfect knowledge of Welsh reading were grafted firmly in the youthful mind; and, in a fourth, an endowment for teaching the children the Scriptures in Welsh was set aside by an ingenious “contrivance” of the master, with the connivance, I presume, of those intrusted with the management of the charity. The scholars repeated by rote a verse each per week, and were taught the usual branches of a school course in English. The three former schools, I should observe, are schools established and supported by large landowners in North Wales.

The following table shows the centesimal proportions of scholars “belonging to the school,” respectively learning the subject indicated at the head of each column given below, distinguishing between the agricultural or North Wales Unions—and the manufacturing, and mixed agricultural and manufacturing Unions of South Wales:—

Subject matter
of education
in public
schools.

Centesimal
proportions of
scholars in
different
branches.

TABLE showing the Centesimal Proportions of Scholars learning the under-mentioned Subjects to the "Number of Scholars (distinguishing Males and Females) belonging to the Schools."

	Number of Schools that made Returns to this Head of Inquiry.	Number of Scholars belonging to the foregoing Schools.		Religious Instruction.		Reading.		Writing.		Arith- metic.		Needle- work.	Other Industrial Work.		Geo- graphy.		English Grammar.		English History.		Mechanics.	Algebra.	Euclid.	Elements of Physical Science.		Music from Notts.		Drawing.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.		Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.				Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.
North Wales } Unions -	57	2,107	1,665	80·0	82·7	77·4	78·9	70·8	65·9	63·1	59·2	50·6	·4	·7	33·3	30·	33·7	21·7	16·4	12·4	·8	1·5	1·13	1·6	·9	8·3	5·3	7·	4·
South Wales } Unions -	64	4,168	3,725	77·9	80·	83·7	86·8	74·6	78·9	66·7	68·3	57·6	3·	3·7	35·4	29·2	24·5	20·2	12·0	7·7	·16	·40	·3	2·4	·50	1·7	1·2	3·3	1·4

This table exhibits the range of education in nearly three fourths of the public schools enumerated by me. Of the columns for religious instruction and reading, I may observe, that in a few schools these subjects were made special branches of instruction, and that scholars who had passed through them were not enumerated as learning them. These proportions, although high, would probably have been somewhat higher but for this reason. As it might have been expected, the higher proportions are found in the ordinary branches,—reading, writing, and arithmetic, which constituted the range of education under the old school system; it is when we come to geography and grammar that we find the falling off in the numbers under instruction. The proportions in these branches do not, however, necessarily indicate that the subjects are not taught in the schools; but that both geography and grammar are introduced only in the more advanced stages of the school course, and are, therefore, studied only by the higher scholars; while reading, writing, and arithmetic, being carried over nearly the whole school period, comprise a larger proportion of scholars under instruction. It will be observed that the difference in the proportions of males under the head geography, for the North Wales and South Wales Unions, is 2·9 per cent. only in favour of the former, but in grammar it is 9·1 per cent.; the difference in the proportions learning geography and learning grammar being, in North Wales, only 4·6 per cent., but in South Wales 10·9 per cent.* It appears, therefore, that while geography is a more general subject matter of instruction than grammar in South Wales, grammar is more generally taught in the public schools of the northern than in those of the two South Welsh Unions. Personal observation enables me to substantiate the indications given in these figures. In South Wales I found geography taught in schools, in which grammar formed no feature in the curriculum of instruction, and in the North Wales schools I found that grammar was taught to a larger proportion of scholars than in those of South Wales. This is a presumptive proof of what experience enables me to state as a fact—that the study of “words,” or of English, is more attended to, and better taught in the North than in the South Wales schools. A comparison of the male and female columns, shows that the difference in their respective centesimal proportions increases in favour of males, as we progress from the rudimentary to the more advanced branches of school instruction—proving that, from whatever cause, the education of girls is not carried out to the same extent as that of male scholars. But a more significant feature, illustrative of the glaring deficiency in the provision for the special education of females in public schools in Wales, is indicated by the fact that in North Wales only 50·5, or one half, and in South Wales 57·6, not three fifths of the number of girls “belonging to the schools,” are returned as receiving instruction in a branch which is considered indispensable for females in domestic life—needlework. Comment

Observations
on the propor-
tions.

* These numbers refer the columns for “Males.”

on this fact would be superfluous, beyond a passing remark on the stringent necessity which exists for means being taken to supply what is a great and most serious defect in the machinery of education in the schools of Wales. At least, the presence of a sewing mistress once or twice a week, to teach girls in a mixed school, should be made a condition of receiving grants of public monies, particularly in towns and populous districts where such aid can be secured at a trifling cost.

Diminution of the proportions in the higher branches.

In other branches than those which I have mentioned, the proportions undergo a considerable and sudden reduction. English history, indeed, shows the proportions 16·4 males and 12·4 females in North, and 12·0 males and 7·7 females in South Wales; but I found that in many cases learning history signified nothing more than reading and examination in the occasional historical lessons which occurred in the class books in use in schools; as the definitions of music and drawing implied—as to the first, nothing more than a knowledge of a scale of notes sufficient to enable the scholars to take up one of the ordinary airs sung in public schools; and, as to the second, the delineation, on the slate or board, of the figure of a problem in mensuration. In the North Wales schools, the proportions learning music are returned, for males and females respectively, 8·4 and 5·3; in South Wales 1·7 and 1·2. The great mass of scholars in the schools of Wales, in consequence of difficulties arising from difference of language, have virtually more to do, in order to obtain an average amount of instruction than the same class of boys in an English school; and it may, therefore, be doubted whether the teachers in the public schools of South Wales have not exercised a judicious discretion in their omission of music as a branch of the school course, where so much that is necessary has to be done—and in so short of time. At least, in South Wales, its introduction as a distinct feature—beyond what may be required for such school purposes as the preservation of order—seems likely to be superseded by the opportunities which are offered for acquiring a knowledge of vocal music through the rapid spread, in connection with churches and chapels, of “singing schools;” and in connexion with the various Works of similar organisations for the purpose of instruction in instrumental music. I am informed on good authority that the cultivation of music in all its forms has made most rapid progress in the manufacturing districts of South Wales, within the past ten years.

Objection to over-educating in public schools, considered.

The proportions in the table given above show that the range of education in public schools in Wales is in practice limited to religious instruction, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and grammar. Even history, though as I have before observed, so often taught *informally*, returns only one scholar in six; a proportion so inconsiderable, that it cannot be said to constitute an important feature in the educational scheme of the schools, while the several branches, algebra,—Euclid, and the elements of physical science, exhibit proportions so insignificant that they may be regarded as inappreciable elements in the course of instruction.

But of the six branches referred to, two,—reading and writing, are merely mechanical acquirements, and in a well-digested system of education ought only, to a very limited extent, to constitute special or separate branches, inasmuch as they might be taught concurrently with other subjects of a school course. The range of subject matter, so far as education in the sense of training the mind is concerned, is thus cut down to four branches. There are, therefore, no grounds for an objection that is frequently urged against public schools of this order, that they over-educate, or, in other words, give an education beyond the requirements of the classes who usually resort to them. A certain amount of intellectual training, it is admitted, is one of the objects proposed in popular education, and it is not therefore easy to perceive how, if we educate at all, we can restrict the range of subject-matter within narrower limits than these four branches. Nor are they other than well adapted to the requirements of after-life, however humble may be the social position of the individual to whom they are taught. But, I believe that this objection is urged by those who have looked at the workings of education in our public schools only from a distance, and that errors in the distribution and relative proportions of the subjects of education have been mistaken for over-education. It is, however, certain, that, so far as range of subject-matter goes, there is no tendency to aim at over-educating in the existing systems of public schools. Instead of a course of instruction embracing too many subjects, I regard it as an evidence of the want of subordination and arrangement of the subjects of education, in the schools of Wales, that the returns indicate neglect, if not an almost total omission of the “Elements of Physical Science” as a branch of their course. A knowledge of the agencies by which man is surrounded has so intimate a bearing on his well-being in every sense of the word, that it is of the highest importance that it should have a place in every system of education, without regard to distinctions of social grade. I make these remarks with due consideration of the disadvantages to which popular education is subject, in parts of my district, from the limited period over which the school term extends, irregular attendance, and other obstacles to the full accomplishment of its objects.

In private schools I found little difference from public schools in the *professed* range of subject-matter. In most of them instruction in grammar and geography was said to be given; but in the class of private schools which might be looked upon as *bonâ fide* schools for the working classes these branches, with a few exceptions, constituted such subordinate features in the school course, that the education would properly be considered, as it really was in some of them, as being restricted to reading, writing, and arithmetic; religious instruction, beyond the use of the Scriptures as a mere reading book, being altogether ignored by them.

In the mixed schools—those in which the children of sections of the middle class are intermingled with the children of artisans and unskilled workmen, the staple subjects of instruction were reading,

Subject-matter
of education in
private schools.

In mixed
schools.

writing, and arithmetic; but geography, and more particularly grammar, were elements in the school course. So far as the number of lesson books was concerned, I should infer that religious instruction was attended to, more particularly in girl's schools; but beyond the books I had no proof that such was the case. I found, from many of the masters of this order of schools, that there was a very commonly prevailing prejudice among parents against their children's instruction in grammar and geography. Generally, the masters were obliged to use some caution in dealing with the difficulty arising from this source. In some instances the time occupied in teaching these unpopular branches was reduced to the very narrowest limits, and in a few cases a division was made in the school of those learning and not learning grammar. This feeling was by no means exclusively entertained by working people, as cases were mentioned to me in which objections had been made by parents of the class of small tradesmen to their "children's time being occupied with grammar and geography, and neglecting accounts and a good handwriting." I found the same feeling prevailing with respect to instruction in these branches of learning in public schools in country districts adjacent to the large works in South Wales, and that it was entertained principally by a class composed of under-agents in works, small tradesmen, or small farmers who were partially engaged in commercial pursuits. These men who, from want of early opportunities of education, were themselves generally very ignorant, were no doubt taught by experience what they themselves were most deficient in, and were thus led to look upon writing and accounts as the only ends of the school. There was, however, a marked difference in the expansion of views on educational topics in this intermediate class in the manufacturing districts and the same class in the agricultural districts of North Wales, and my experience leads me to conclude that the difference is in favour of the latter.

A still higher class of private schools are essentially middle-class schools, for though the children of those who come under the general designation of industrious classes are occasionally found in them, they are not in such numbers as enable us to draw any conclusion, from the education given in them, affecting the general question of popular education. In addition to grammar and geography, these schools include in the subject-matter of their course geometry, algebra, and occasionally the classics; but, as far as the classes who are comprehended in the objects of this inquiry are concerned, these branches are not available to them, either from their school period being too short to permit their attending to them, or from the parents not recognising their utility in the education of their children. The number of this class of schools throughout my district is inconsiderable.

In dames
schools and
boys schools of
the same order.

On the subject-matter of education in dames' schools and boys' schools of the same order a passing remark will suffice. In the lower class of dames' schools nothing is attempted to be taught beyond rudimentary reading and spelling. In the higher order of

schools which, however, properly come under this designation, these branches are better, but still very defectively taught, and in addition sewing (in girls' schools), geography, and grammar. Of the two latter branches I should say that they were attempted to be taught rather than that they *were* taught. These schools were mixed schools. There were a few schools also of the mixed class of a still higher order, in which grammar, geography, and religious knowledge constituted larger elements in the course of instruction. I may observe generally, however, of the private schools for girls, of whatever class, that, in my district, with very few exceptions, the education given in them was so defective that an outline of its subject-matter would be of little value as an index to the amount of intellectual culture which was imparted to the scholar.

The returns from private schools throughout this district are complicated by the fact that nearly the whole of them are of a mixed character, and the different classes in most of them glide so imperceptibly into each other that nothing less than a special enumeration of the scholars according to their social grade, would enable us to determine how far the figures which the returns exhibit, bear on the education of the industrial or that of classes above them. This remark applies to the returns from this class of schools on the subject of which I am now treating. With six or eight exceptions, the private schools in my district, exclusive of the lower dame schools, were composed of children of the middle as well as of those of the working classes, and the returns of the subject-matter of education cannot, therefore, be received as tests by which to decide any question relating to the condition of popular education, in the proper sense of the terms. I have, therefore, in the remarks I have offered on this order of schools, confined myself to statements which are the results of inquiry, and of the observation for which opportunities were presented to me in the course of my examination of schools.

Private schools
returns include
two classes.

I shall limit my observations on the quality of education to a summary of the leading features which came under my notice in the course of my examination of schools.

Quality of
education.

In schools in Wales "reading" has a more extended meaning than that which the term conveys to an English ear. In an English school it simply implies the putting together according to the letters which indicate them, of sounds so as to form words, and a knowledge of the meaning of such words as may not have been previously familiar to the reader. In the great majority of schools in my district the scholar, on the contrary, has not merely to acquire the meaning of a few exceptional words, but the sounds of the whole language in which he or she reads. This is the great obstacle which the prevalence of the Welsh, as a living language, throws in the way of the Welshman in the work of education. At present, however, I refer to reading only in its ordinary meaning, and reserve the additional difficulties imposed on the Welsh scholar by difference of language for separate consideration.

Reading.

How taught in public schools.

As a rule, I found the art of mere reading, or the putting together of sounds so as to form words, to be very defective in the public schools in my district, particularly in South Wales. There, it was comparatively in few cases that scholars in a middle class, or equally removed from the highest and lowest class in the school, could read the lessons in which they were examined with tolerable fluency. Apart from Welsh accent and intonation, there was a mis-pronunciation, arising from the confusion of the powers of sounds in words, which often rendered the plainest words unintelligible, or at least left the hearer to collect the meaning from the context. In some cases a more familiar word, having a totally different meaning, was given for the word in the book. It would seem that there is some peculiar difficulty attached to achieving correctness in this branch in South Wales. The highly intelligent master (an Englishman) of a National School, in a town in which English was in use as the vernacular more extensively than Welsh, observed to me,—“There is a difficulty in getting the boys here to read well, which I cannot account for. I have used every means in my power to get the scholars to read fluently and correctly, and the class you have heard is a specimen of the result. If you go to a higher class you will find the same imperfections, though perhaps not so strongly marked.” In the public schools in North Wales, with the exception of the smaller schools in the rural districts, the general character of the reading was better, and in the intermediate schools (for girls) in South Wales I found the reading, in point of fluency, emphasis, and pronunciation, frequently better than in the public schools; but a large proportion of the scholars in these schools were children of tradesmen, or of others of the middle class, not unfrequently of English artisans who had recently become settlers in South Wales.

Spelling.

To spelling, the same general remarks which I have made on the defectiveness of reading apply. In the private schools this branch was generally taught by rote. In public schools I found a very indiscriminate and injudicious application of dictation to the purpose of teaching spelling to lower classes, in which the scholars had necessarily a very imperfect knowledge of English sounds, or, at least, of their modification in syllables. I fully admit the value of dictation where correct spelling has been attained, but it only tends to consolidate errors where this is not the case. The simple correction of the spelling on the “board,” or otherwise, by the teacher, is not sufficient to obliterate the impression made on the mind of the pupil by “writing” the wrong letters. Dictation is evidently, by some mistake, in such instances, confounded with writing the lessons, and tends to foster “bad spelling,” instead of correcting it.

Meanings of words not sufficiently explained.

But one of the principal defects in reading which I met in most of the schools that I visited was want of knowledge of the meanings of words in the lessons on which the scholars were examined. The higher class of public schools in North Wales,

I must, however, observe, were exceptions to this statement. In these this very important feature of education was on the whole well attended to, and the results obtained by examination were generally very satisfactory. In the South Wales Schools it was, with a few exceptions much neglected. In the country districts, where, from the imperfect knowledge of the English language, attention to this point was most necessary, it was most neglected. That neglect is, however, by no means chargeable on country schools only. In a town school of high reputation, on examining the second class from the highest in the school, in a book placed in my hands by the master as one which the class "had read," the scholars were unable to give the meaning of many of the principal words in the lesson, and on the knowledge of which the understanding of the whole subject-matter of which the chapter treated, depended. To Welsh scholars especially, nothing is more necessary than explanation of the meanings of the terms which they meet in reading English books, as in the most simple lessons the majority of the principal words are unknown to them, and yet, in both public and private schools, particularly in South Wales, no department of school teaching is more ill-discharged or more frequently omitted than this.

In the larger public schools in North Wales I found this Grammar in public schools. branch, so far as classification and syntactical construction were concerned, very efficiently taught. In some cases it was taught on the analytical principle; but I think its practical application by identification with composition was not sufficiently insisted upon. In the smaller schools in the rural districts (under the old system and uncertificated masters) grammar was generally either not taught at all, or so badly taught that it might quite as well have been omitted altogether. In the public schools in South Wales there was almost every possible variety, both as to quality and extent of grammar instruction. In a few schools only, not altogether numbering half a dozen, was it taught in its highest form. In the great majority of the schools, particularly in the country districts, it either found no place in the course of instruction, or otherwise was only carried so far as to enable the scholars to point out the leading parts of speech in a reading lesson; yet in many of the schools which I visited this was done badly. Even in several of the large schools in towns nothing was attempted beyond parsing; the analysis of the sentence, or any inquiry beyond what related to the technicalities of its grammatical arrangements, was entirely beyond the comprehension of the scholars. In some of the schools under Government inspection the masters informed me that, in consequence of the short time over which the school period of the scholars extended, it was deemed advisable not to teach grammar, beyond a knowledge of the parts of speech in a reading lesson. The general inference which I draw from my examination of schools in South Wales is, that grammatical knowledge is at a low ebb in them; an inference which may indeed, with some slight qualification, be extended to all the branches of instruction which deal with language cultivation.

In private schools.

In the private schools I found a knowledge of grammar still more defective than in public schools. In by far the largest proportion of the schools of this class, including even mixed schools, all that was usually attempted in the way of learning grammar was to get up "Murray," "Lennie," or some other text book on the subject by rote, with occasional exercises in parsing. In the majority of these schools no other explanation of the parts of speech could be given than by repetition of the words of the definitions laid down in the grammars, and in that of the verb to attempt to ascertain what was meant by the scholastic jargon, "to be, to do, or to suffer," was a hopeless effort. In the lower private schools, those which were almost exclusively resorted to by children of the working classes, grammar was seldom professed to be taught, and in the intermediate and mixed schools (for boys and girls) instruction in it merely signified the committing to memory of the definitions of the parts of speech, unaccompanied in many cases by even an attempt at parsing. The rationale of this practice it would be difficult to assign, unless it was with a view to laying up a reserve of definitions of the parts of speech for use, when occasion should call for them.

Religious instruction.

In reference to this branch I may observe, that in estimating its quality I have thought it right to take into consideration the different character of the instruction given in schools connected with the Established Church and Non-denominational schools, and to apply to each system its proper test, according as the subject-matter was of a special or general nature. Whenever I could secure their presence, the examinations in this branch in Church Schools were conducted by the clergyman, and in Non-denominational schools by some minister of religion; my part in the matter being limited to suggesting such additional questions as might be necessary to determine how far the instruction given was efficient in its character.

In North Wales.

In the rural districts in North Wales religious instruction was defective in both National and Non-denominational Schools, if we may judge by the fact that in the former it often consisted of a mere repetition of the Catechism, or reading portions of the Scriptures, or other religious text books, unaccompanied by any explanation, and in Non-denominational schools in a simple reading of the text of the Scriptures, without any knowledge of the meaning of the words. In one instance, in a Church School, the 2nd Chapter of St. Matthew was read. The children did not know what "wise men" meant, nor "seen his star," nor "cast." In some cases the scholars, although ignorant of what they read or repeated in English, would make satisfactory replies on the questions being addressed to them in Welsh. They evidently in this case owed their religious knowledge more to what they learned in the Sunday than in the Day School. In the larger and more recently established Church Schools in this part of the district the religious instruction was given on a more extended and efficient scale; a result to which the introduction of modern class books, illustrating

religious subjects, appears to have very much contributed,—the books of the Irish Board, as well as those of the National Society, being in very general use in the schools. In the public schools connected with the Church in South Wales instruction in this branch, though varied in character, seems generally to have been well attended to. In some instances (principally in girls' schools) questions on the events of Scripture history, on its geography and other points, were answered very readily and intelligently; but in others there were deficiencies in this kind of general knowledge which indicated that the instruction had been limited to reading the text of the Catechism or Scriptures without even verbal explanation.

In the schools connected with the Church in South Wales the portions of the Catechism which embody the peculiar doctrines or forms of the Church were very generally omitted, the instruction being limited to the Ten Commandments, the Lord's Prayer, and, in some cases, the Apostles' Creed. This was done, I was informed, in deference to the feelings of the Dissenters in the neighbourhood of the schools, who generally formed a largely preponderating portion of the working population. In other Church Schools instruction in the Catechism was voluntary, and the scholars, in cases in which the parents objected to the Catechism, received general scriptural instruction only. In South Wales this relaxation in one form or the other was almost universal. In the Church Schools in North Wales, though not so generally, it has been in many cases adopted, and from the inquiries I have made it appears to be extending. The reason given for it by clergymen and others was—"If we did not do this our schools would be nearly empty."

The Church Catechism not insisted upon in South Wales.

In the Non-denominational and British Schools there was, as in the case of Church Schools, almost every shade of variety in the quality of instruction given. In the superior order of schools, both in North and South Wales, the events of Scripture history, its geography, and often points connected with the natural history of the Bible, as well as practical duties, were well attended to, and the answers obtained in examination were generally good; but it was frequently found in schools in rural districts that questions which could not be answered in English were very intelligently replied to in Welsh. In a large number of the schools coming under the general designation "Non-denominational," in country districts, especially in North Wales, the Bible was used merely as a reading book; and, beyond the meanings of words no questions were asked which would properly come under the head of religious instruction. Like the National, the Non-denominational Schools have availed themselves extensively of the advantages of improved class books bearing on religious subjects, and with advantage. In fact, it was evident that much of the general information, in both Church and Non-denominational Schools, which was shown by the scholars in examination, was due to their reading, rather than to more direct instruction in the way of explanation or comment by the teachers.

Religious instruction in non-denominational schools.

Religious
instruction in
private schools.

In the great majority of private schools for boys (those for the children of the working and mixed classes), it could not properly be said that religious instruction was given at all, at least formally. A chapter in the Bible was read daily in most of them, but it was treated as a reading lesson, and not as the basis of any religious instruction that may have been founded upon it. In the higher private schools I found occasionally lessons given on Scripture geography, or questions on its historical events, with the answers appended. In conversing with the masters on the subject, they almost invariably expressed an opinion to the effect that they considered religious instruction, beyond the limits I have described, as out of their province. In girls' schools the Bible was very generally used as a reading book; and, in addition, in those of the mixed and higher order, catechetical or other books were in use, which were got up by rote. As far as I had an opportunity of ascertaining, the instruction given was of little value. In the one or two cases in which I witnessed an examination, the knowledge of the scholars seemed to me to be a mere collection of crude dates and unconnected events, having little bearing on conduct or the duties of life.

Public feeling
in reference to
religious in-
struction.

I should not be doing justice to the schools of Wales in the remarks I have made if I did not add, that the character and extent of the religious instruction given in them are influenced by the general tone of feeling among the Welsh people, which points to the Sunday school and religious organisation generally as the proper machinery for religious instruction. I have endeavoured carefully to ascertain the public sentiment on this subject, and the result is, a conviction that the great mass of the people look upon religious instruction as being out of its proper place in the schoolroom, as they think it can be much more efficiently imparted elsewhere. In saying this I do not mean to imply that this feeling takes the form of an objection to the reading of the Bible in the day school, to instruction in its history, geography, or in the broad moral duties inculcated in it. On the contrary, I think that the great mass of the people acquiesce in instruction within these limits as supplying the young with materials for the higher, or at least more direct, religious teaching which is given through the Sunday School and other religious agencies; but beyond them they regard religious instruction in duties and doctrines as properly pertaining to the religious organisation rather than to the schoolroom. This feeling may be stronger, or at least more prominently put forth, among the Dissenters, who constitute the great bulk of the population, but it is participated by a considerable portion, at least of the laity, in the Church. Of the general tone of opinion on this point we have illustrations in the evidence. The schoolmaster is not looked upon, so far as his relations in that capacity are concerned, as the proper party on whom the duty of religious instruction should devolve; and the observation has frequently been made to me by parties who themselves are connected with religious denominations, that they did not see why religion should be introduced into the school at all, or why the school should be made the arena

for bringing up religious differences. In fact, the sentiment that religious instruction, implying not only the inculcation of duties and doctrines, but earnestness, fervour, and sincerity, should be left to religious men, harmonises with the religious spirit which pervades the population. There is little doubt that a conviction so general as this appears to be has its influence, not only on the Non-denominational, but the Church and private schools throughout the country, and the direction which it takes is that of limiting instruction in the day school to giving what we may term the *materials* of religious knowledge, and beyond this to check the occupation of time (which has its appropriate duties) in the inculcation of a branch of instruction for the effective instillation of which into the minds of the young, it is contended that seasons more fitting and opportunities more eligible are presented when it is assigned to the agencies which religion has evoked for the purpose. This sentiment, though it may not have received its full development, points to a division of labour in the work of education by which it recognises their respective spheres for religious and ordinary school instruction. For the causes which have led to this state of general feeling among the people of Wales, I need only refer to that portion of the Report which shows what has been effected in the way of religious instruction of the population, through the agency of the Sunday School in Wales.

In a large proportion of the public schools in Wales religious instruction is given in the English language, of which the great mass of the scholars are either totally ignorant, or which they only very imperfectly comprehend. Whatever opinion may be entertained on the general question of the expediency of religious instruction as an element in a school course, I think its value in this case is reduced to a nullity. Conveyed in a language which ceases to be the ordinary medium of religious thought and feeling as soon as the scholar leaves the school, and nurtured by no associations derived from the teachings of home, or of the place of worship, that instruction leaves no impression, and exercises no influence on him, when he goes into the world; he throws it by as that for which he has no use, and seeks, in his vernacular tongue, for forms in which to clothe his religious thought, and by which, as it appeals to early associations and feelings, his sentiments of duty and of reverence are cherished. If we suppose an English child to have its religious instruction imparted to it in French or some other language of which it knows next to nothing, and then suddenly to be placed in a position where the only medium of religious thought is the English language, we have an analogous case to that of the Welsh-speaking child receiving its religious instruction in English. In point of fact, the traces of the English religious instruction received in the school are soon entirely obliterated. A Dissenting minister of some eminence in Wales, in referring to the course of instruction pursued in National Schools, observed to me, "I object to the Catechism on broad principles; not because it proselytises to the Church; I do not think it does so. My experience leads me

Value of religious instruction in English to Welsh scholars.

“to conclude that it has no influence on the minds of the children, “who go to church or chapel quite independently of any religious instruction they may have received in the day school.” This feature in the religious instruction of the Welsh-speaking child was recognised in some of the schools in North Wales, so far as translation into Welsh was concerned, of such principal words in a lesson as the scholars did not understand. But as this was generally limited to giving the meaning of a few of the longest and least frequently used words, a large proportion of what was read was frequently found to be little understood and the meaning of the passage very vaguely comprehended; not so well apprehended at least as to enable children to enter into its spirit. One fact in connection with this subject stands forth prominent—that the religious spirit and intelligence which are such marked characteristics of the Welsh people are clearly traceable to the Sunday Schools which, in the vast majority of instances, adopt the vernacular tongue as the medium of religious instruction, and not to the Day schools.

Writing.

My inspection of specimens of writing induced me to conclude that this mechanical department of an educational course is generally well attended to in public and private schools, particularly in South Wales. Many of the private schools, which in other respects ranked only with dames' schools, prided themselves, and not without cause, on turning out “good penmen.” In girls' schools I found the general character of the penmanship to be good. The North Wales schools, taken altogether, were not equal to those of South Wales in writing. As a general remark, I may observe, that I think it a defect in the methods of school instruction that this branch is not made more subservient to the uses which may be made of it as an aid in acquiring other branches of a school course. It may, *e. g.*, be used with advantage in teaching reading, if the scholars as soon as they begin to read, were to write down the lesson, and read from what they have written. This is at present for the most part done only very partially in what are called “dictation lessons.” This practice of writing whatever has to be learned is a powerful aid to the acquirement of correct spelling. It has also other advantages, as to the retention of what is learned in the memory, and as to subject-matter in encouraging mature thought, which render its adoption as a general adjunct to other branches of instruction of great importance. The objection usually urged to it is that as the writing is often done from under the eye of the master, it would be done negligently, and consequently its adoption would tend to habits of bad writing. But there is no reason to suppose that a proper system of inspection would not secure attention to writing being equally well executed in this case as with its present restricted use. An objection has also been taken to the use of the slate, which it is asserted would be a consequence of the adoption of this practice. It is said that the daily and almost hourly use of the slate for the purpose of writing, would interfere with the acquirement of good penmanship. I believe, however, that this objection has no foundation, and that the “good penman-

ship" contemplated by it is a conventional term applicable to showy, rather than plain useful handwriting; nor does the exclusive or even principal use of the slate follow from the general application of writing to other branches of a course of education. In fact, the continuous practice which the adoption of this plan implies would lead to the formation of a style of writing more natural, and in every respect more useful than that which is at present so frequently attained.

Arithmetic may be looked upon as the staple branch for intel- Arithmetic.
lectual development in the great majority of the schools of my district. In a large proportion of the private schools it is the principal, if not the only subject of instruction which is so far taught as to have an appreciable effect in training the mind, and in public schools in country districts it often constitutes the whole, whatever other branches may be professed to be given. To the Welsh scholar, who is ignorant of English, arithmetic offers the advantage of a narrow nomenclature only being necessary to understanding its principles and practical operations. It is here, therefore, where he is least subject to the disadvantages arising from difference of language, that we can best appreciate the powers of the Welsh mind. This is the field in which alone his educational progress can fairly be contrasted with that of others. Hence proficiency in this branch was more generally found in the schools of this district than in any other branch of a school course. It was perhaps the only department in which the private could be said successfully to compete with public schools; for, although the latter, in point of methods of teaching arithmetic, were generally superior to the former, the instruction in the private schools was often carried to a further point, and greater mechanical skill in dealing with practical operations was evinced by the scholars than in public schools. This was due to mere time, from the almost exclusive teaching of arithmetic in the private schools. For variety in the forms of dealing with numbers, the public schools were incomparably superior. Collective lessons given on the lesson board, questions worked simultaneously, and in some instances a judicious course of mental arithmetic, had their value in preparing the mind to deal with the operations of numbers. In the private schools the method of instruction had little or no variety; it was, in fact, limited to working questions from a text book, aided by oral explanations from the master when reference was made to him by the scholar. In both public and private schools one of the marked defects in teaching this branch was the non-practical character of the arithmetical exercises. In a very large proportion of even the public schools questions for working were given in a form which had not the slightest analogy to, and could not form the least possible preparation for the application of arithmetic to the business of practical life; *e. g.*, in "Addition of Money" I found that the finishing exercises generally given were composed of eight, or at most ten lines, of such amounts as 540,9767, instead of being, as they undoubtedly ought to be, long columns of twenty or thirty numbers of two or three figures each only. The absurdity

of the present practice is apparent, if it is considered how few of the boys in the public schools will have to deal in life with hundreds of thousands of pounds, and to how many the accurate casting up of long columns of £ s. d. would be of the highest value in the every-day work of their future callings. As an additional illustration of this want of practical direction being given to arithmetical exercises, I may mention that in the greater number of both private and public schools, I failed to get correct answers to very simple questions as to the amount of purchases of several articles at a shop at—per lb. or per yard, although proposed to scholars or classes which had passed through the money rules, and many of whom described themselves as being in "Practice." As a general remark, I should say that in private schools the defect was, that want of variety in the treatment of arithmetic to which I have adverted; in public schools, while the explanatory instruction was full and good, there was a great deficiency in practical working.

Imperfect
teaching of
elements of
arithmetic.

In a large, I may say by far the greater, proportion of schools which I visited, I found one very serious defect in teaching arithmetic—the imperfect character of the attainments of the scholars in the elementary rules of that branch of a school course. In numerous instances scholars who reported themselves as working proportion, fractions, or decimals, were found unequal to manipulating, with any approach either to facility or correctness, exercises in the simple or compound rules of addition, &c. In some cases I could trace this defect to a want of sufficient practical exercise in the fundamental rules, arising from a desire on the part of the teachers to "push their scholars on;" but I am induced to conclude that in at least many instances this neglect of what may be called the mechanical department of arithmetic has its origin in under-estimating the importance, as it relates to this branch particularly, of Jacotot's great principle—*répétez sans cesse*. At least I did not find in the great majority of schools, either public or private, any systematic arrangements for a continuous recurrence of the scholars to the fundamental processes of numbers. But, whatever may be the cause, there can be no doubt as to the prejudicial consequences that result from this defect. In arithmetic a complete mastery over the preceding is the only condition of the learner's successful progress to the next higher stage. There are ample grounds, which I need not detail here, for concluding, that this want of readily dealing with the fundamental rules of number is one of the great obstacles to the more general cultivation of arithmetic in after-life, inasmuch as the imperfect knowledge is thrown aside with distaste, from the difficulties which always beset every effort to apply it to more advanced rules, or to the practical purposes of life. In this point of view, this defect in the teaching of arithmetic is attended with results that affect the educational condition of the industrious classes generally, more particularly as it relates to the ulterior education of the adult portion of the population. These remarks on deficiencies in elementary learning apply, with some modifica-

tions, to other branches of the school course, particularly to reading, and generally to the study of language.

I found that in the public schools instruction in geography was generally limited to the topography of cities and countries on the map, their relative positions to and distances from each other, and the principal productions or historical features of each country. Within these limits few branches in the educational course were more successfully taught. In the examination of both town and country schools the answers were not only readily but correctly given. It may be observed, as of arithmetic, of map instruction, that as to the description of the position and distances of places the difference of language does not throw such obstacles in the way of acquiring this branch of knowledge as in the case of grammar and other departments of a school course. The pictorial aid of the map, too, contributes largely to the removal of difficulties arising from a deficient knowledge of language. One of the great defects which I found in teaching geography was, that the nature of the map was seldom sufficiently explained to the scholars. An excellent mode of giving this explanation, so as to bring it within the comprehension of the youngest pupils, would be by instructing the child in the geography of the street, town, or parish in which it lived, showing how the distances and relative positions of familiar objects were ascertained, and how they were represented on the map. By thus proceeding, by steps, to the map of the county, of England, and other countries on the surface of the globe, a clear and intelligible view of the nature of maps would be obtained, which is at present often found wanting even in those who can point out the positions and distances of the countries and cities of the world. At present, indeed, children may often be found, particularly in country schools, who know far more of the geographical position and other details of foreign countries than of their own localities; readier and more accurate replies can often be obtained to questions on the geography of America than to those on the geography of Wales. In the schools of South Wales familiar descriptions of the products of different countries, and easy explanations of the more elementary notions of mathematical geography, might with advantage be introduced more largely into the course of instruction in geography, especially in the higher classes. In the North Wales schools I found these points better attended to.

In the great majority of the private schools in my district geography was taught with far less efficiency than in the public schools. In a considerable proportion of the former the ordinary method of instruction was by getting up lessons in "Goldsmith" or some other text book by rote, often without any reference to the maps in the book. In many even of the higher order of girls' schools it was taught by the aid of Pinnock's Catechism, or some book of about the same grade of merit. In the inferior order of boys' schools, there was positively no instruction given in this branch, and in many others of the same and even of a higher class not a map could be found on the walls

of the schoolrooms. It was only in the private schools that properly come in under the designation of middle-class schools that any approach to an improved and rational method of teaching this important department of education could be traced, and in many even of these schools the method was extremely defective. For this state of education as it respects geography an apology, or at least explanation, might be found in the fact that it is one of those branches the value of which is not appreciated by the parents of the children who are sent, especially to the lower class private schools. I found a similar sentiment prevailing among parents as to teaching geography in public schools, and even participated in by parties of a higher order, who thought geography an "unnecessary branch" for the children of workmen. I mention the last fact as an illustration that crude and imperfect notions of the character and limits of popular education are to be found, not only among the industrious classes themselves, but among those who occupy far higher positions in life, positions of public trust and of honour, and who are therefore looked up to as being in advance of ordinary views on a subject that has so intimate a bearing on the welfare of the community as that of education.

Needlework.

The industrial branch of sewing (in girls' schools) is the only remaining branch demanding notice. In the schools of North Wales it was with a few exceptions badly taught, and circumstances to which I have previously alluded sufficiently explain why this should be the case. In schools conducted by males, and in which the temporary aid only of a sewing mistress was called in, this branch, though the only special branch of female education, naturally would assume a very subordinate position in the estimate of its importance as a portion of a school course. In the public schools in South Wales sewing was more efficiently taught, especially when the school was superintended by a schoolmistress, either conjointly with or independently of the master; but even in South Wales, in the great majority of schools where there was no constant superintendence by a mistress, sewing had not that attention paid to it which its importance as an indispensable to qualifying girls for their future duties demanded. In the private schools greater attention was given to this branch, and in some cases it was an exclusive feature, so far at least as to occupy so much time in artificial needlework as to leave little opportunity for acquiring elementary learning of a character not less necessary.

Books used in public schools.

The use of improved books in the schools of my district is one of the most cheering and hopeful proofs of educational progress in this country. In remote localities, where modern schools had not been established, and better methods of instruction or other educational improvements were unknown, improved school books had found their way. In many of the humblest subscription schools in the remote districts of North Wales I found, either as text books in the hands of the master, or as class books in use by the scholars, school publications of the National Society, British and Foreign Society, or of the Irish Board, and throughout South Wales this was yet more generally the case. The better class of

public schools, in both town and country, generally used the school works issued by the several societies on whose principles they were conducted, according as they were Church or Non-denominational Schools; but in both classes I found the partial adoption of the Irish school books on the increase. A very general defect in the schools which I visited was the absence of method and order in the selection of school books. To some extent this may be due to the great variety of valuable school works issued by societies or others, all having claims to adoption on the ground of peculiar merits. But this variety affords no reason why a proper discretion should not be used by the masters or managers by observing some method in their selection. I found, however, in a very considerable proportion of the schools that were not of the inferior order, a variety of books in use, that was almost distracting—one heterogeneous collection without regard to gradation of subject-matter or order. I refer to class books for reading especially. In some of the schools an Irish Lesson book for a middle form was followed by a British and Foreign or National class book, the language of which was such as those only who were considerably advanced could appreciate with any ease. In one country school which I visited the third class from the lowest broke down in an examination on the meanings of words in a book which the class were reading. The master informed me, that he had no intermediate class books between No. 3 of the "Irish" books and that which had been placed in my hands; a book, the language of which was quite equal to what a boy of fourteen years of age in a classical school, could be expected to be conversant with. The selection of the books in this case rested with the managers. Much cannot, I think, be said of the arrangement, generally, of our school books for reading, so far as their gradation in language is concerned; but the masters or managers of schools render the matter still worse by a selection, if such it can be called, in utter disregard of the adaptation of style and language to the mind and stage of progress of the children.

In the private schools I found a more general adherence to the In private "old school books" than in public schools, though in many of schools. them there was a considerable admixture of books of an improved character. In girls' schools I found a very large proportion of text books which are, or ought to be, obsolete. History and grammar were taught by catechisms, "words of meaning" got up by rote, with the certainty of both words and meanings being forgotten in a day or two, and correct spelling of our English language was vainly essayed to be attained by burdening the memory with long columns of words of which "Abednego," "Abyssinia," and "Nebuchadnezzar" constitute specimens. In some of the inferior boys' and in the dames' schools "Vyse" still maintains its position by the side of the "Reading made Easy" and the "Mother's Catechism." In few of the private schools in which young children were taught did I find lesson boards for reading; in not one, specimens for giving instruction on the "properties of Objects."

Maps; diagrams; lesson boards, in public schools.

In immediate connexion with books,—maps, diagrams, and specimens of Objects come to be noticed, inasmuch as, properly speaking, when used for educational purposes, they are but text books in another form. In the public schools throughout both North and South Wales geographical maps were in general use, few of this class of schools being without them, with the exception of the schools in the more remote country districts of North Wales, such as the subscription and endowed schools. But in a few cases only did I meet with diagrams illustrative of physical science, geological maps, or those illustrative of natural history, or the distribution of animals over the surface of the globe. In a very few cases too, I believe in four or five schools, did I find any systematic arrangement of specimens for calling in the aid of Objects in instruction. The method of instruction by Objects, indeed, which is capable of being made the medium of conveying such a fund of varied knowledge to the young mind, is singularly neglected in the great majority of public schools which I visited both in North and South Wales. Its only recognised province seems to be the infant school, or the youngest children in a mixed school, and even in these, as a general rule, "Objects" are taught in a form by no means calculated to secure the educational advantages which they might be made to subserve.

In private schools.

In all these requisites, private schools were generally very deficient. In the greater number of these schools which may strictly be regarded as educating the children of the working classes, even a geographical map could not be seen on the walls of the schoolroom; and even in a large proportion of the mixed schools, although a map of the world on a small scale might be found within the precincts of the school, it apparently was suspended on the walls quite as much for ornament as for use. A similar remark applies to girls' schools. In some of the superior order of the latter, properly middle class schools, I occasionally found an atlas in use, which the scholars referred to in preparing their geographical lessons; but this was a step in advance of the ordinary practice of these schools which was as above described. In the middle-class private schools it would, however, appear that the use of maps is becoming more general. In the private schools in this district for the children of the working classes, diagrams, specimens of Objects, or illustrations of natural history were not known, nor does it appear that the necessity of introducing them was in the remotest degree recognised by the masters.

Methods of instruction in public schools.

With respect to methods of instruction, the most obvious distinction which fell under my observation in the schools of this district was that of the application of the class, or collective (as opposed to individual) system of teaching to the several branches of education comprised in the school courses. This may indeed be said to be the characteristic difference between the systems of teaching adopted in the public, and in private schools which came within the limits of my inquiry. In the former, collective teaching prevailed generally, and was acted upon systematically in every branch of instruction, while the great majority of private schools

either did not adopt it at all, or otherwise took up what was only its resemblance, with a view to convenience more than the educational purposes which it subserves. But even in the public schools the extent to which collective teaching was carried out varied very considerably. In some, and they were generally the superior schools, it was made the means, either in the lesson gallery or the class, of communicating orally a vast amount of instruction in general knowledge and on topics collateral with that which was the immediate subject-matter of teaching,—which could not have been imparted without the facilities which it offered. In a very large proportion of country schools, however, collective teaching was little more than a name, and signified only that the lessons were repeated in classes, with an occasional explanation or question on the part of the teacher. Of oral instruction in the shape of prelections, with a view to the explanation of principles or the introduction of general remarks, there was not even the semblance. In South Wales, where I found this defect most prevalent, I was informed by the masters that the scholars' knowledge of English was so meagre that prelections or systematic explanations would not be understood by them. But the fact that such uses are made of collective teaching to a much greater extent in the public schools of North Wales, where English is less understood, shows that this is an imaginary rather than a real difficulty, and corroborates my impression, that want of capacity on the part of the masters themselves is the principal cause of the very imperfect and limited use made in the schools to which I refer, of this kind of collective instruction. In the method and application of this important aid to education, I unhesitatingly award the superiority, with one or two exceptions, to the public schools of North over those of South Wales. In alluding to the North Wales schools I refer to those more recently established, and principally to those superintended by certificated masters. In these the use made of collective teaching, more especially in some branches, *e. g.*, the English language and geography, showed a great amount of educational ability on the part of the teachers. In two or three also of the comparatively few public schools in South Wales in which this method of instruction was carried out, there was the highest educational merit evinced by the masters in applying the collective method so as to produce important results, as it respected the general intelligence of the scholars.

Collective teaching, as I have observed, is not a method which has obtained any sanction by its adoption in the private schools in this district. In some of them, indeed, the scholars were grouped into classes for reading or spelling; but there was no oral instruction, no systematic questioning, and little or no explanation. Every scholar prepared his or her lesson independently, without any previous prelection or common explanation, and in the class repeated it in turn, the only point of affinity between the members of the class being that the lesson referred to the same subject, and was found in the same text book. In some of the better order of girls' schools there was an improvement on this

Maps; diagrams; lesson boards, in public schools.

In immediate connexion with books,—maps, diagrams, and specimens of Objects come to be noticed, inasmuch as, properly speaking, when used for educational purposes, they are but text books in another form. In the public schools throughout both North and South Wales geographical maps were in general use, few of this class of schools being without them, with the exception of the schools in the more remote country districts of North Wales, such as the subscription and endowed schools. But in a few cases only did I meet with diagrams illustrative of physical science, geological maps, or those illustrative of natural history, or the distribution of animals over the surface of the globe. In a very few cases too, I believe in four or five schools, did I find any systematic arrangement of specimens for calling in the aid of Objects in instruction. The method of instruction by Objects, indeed, which is capable of being made the medium of conveying such a fund of varied knowledge to the young mind, is singularly neglected in the great majority of public schools which I visited both in North and South Wales. Its only recognised province seems to be the infant school, or the youngest children in a mixed school, and even in these, as a general rule, "Objects" are taught in a form by no means calculated to secure the educational advantages which they might be made to subserve.

In private schools.

In all these requisites, private schools were generally very deficient. In the greater number of these schools which may strictly be regarded as educating the children of the working classes, even a geographical map could not be seen on the walls of the schoolroom; and even in a large proportion of the mixed schools, although a map of the world on a small scale might be found within the precincts of the school, it apparently was suspended on the walls quite as much for ornament as for use. A similar remark applies to girls' schools. In some of the superior order of the latter, properly middle class schools, I occasionally found an atlas in use, which the scholars referred to in preparing their geographical lessons; but this was a step in advance of the ordinary practice of these schools which was as above described. In the middle-class private schools it would, however, appear that the use of maps is becoming more general. In the private schools in this district for the children of the working classes, diagrams, specimens of Objects, or illustrations of natural history were not known, nor does it appear that the necessity of introducing them was in the remotest degree recognised by the masters.

Methods of instruction in public schools.

With respect to methods of instruction, the most obvious distinction which fell under my observation in the schools of this district was that of the application of the class, or collective (as opposed to individual) system of teaching to the several branches of education comprised in the school courses. This may indeed be said to be the characteristic difference between the systems of teaching adopted in the public, and in private schools which came within the limits of my inquiry. In the former, collective teaching prevailed generally, and was acted upon systematically in every branch of instruction, while the great majority of private schools

either did not adopt it at all, or otherwise took up what was only its resemblance, with a view to convenience more than the educational purposes which it subserves. But even in the public schools the extent to which collective teaching was carried out varied very considerably. In some, and they were generally the superior schools, it was made the means, either in the lesson gallery or the class, of communicating orally a vast amount of instruction in general knowledge and on topics collateral with that which was the immediate subject-matter of teaching,—which could not have been imparted without the facilities which it offered. In a very large proportion of country schools, however, collective teaching was little more than a name, and signified only that the lessons were repeated in classes, with an occasional explanation or question on the part of the teacher. Of oral instruction in the shape of prelections, with a view to the explanation of principles or the introduction of general remarks, there was not even the semblance. In South Wales, where I found this defect most prevalent, I was informed by the masters that the scholars' knowledge of English was so meagre that prelections or systematic explanations would not be understood by them. But the fact that such uses are made of collective teaching to a much greater extent in the public schools of North Wales, where English is less understood, shows that this is an imaginary rather than a real difficulty, and corroborates my impression, that want of capacity on the part of the masters themselves is the principal cause of the very imperfect and limited use made in the schools to which I refer, of this kind of collective instruction. In the method and application of this important aid to education, I unhesitatingly award the superiority, with one or two exceptions, to the public schools of North over those of South Wales. In alluding to the North Wales schools I refer to those more recently established, and principally to those superintended by certificated masters. In these the use made of collective teaching, more especially in some branches, *e. g.*, the English language and geography, showed a great amount of educational ability on the part of the teachers. In two or three also of the comparatively few public schools in South Wales in which this method of instruction was carried out, there was the highest educational merit evinced by the masters in applying the collective method so as to produce important results, as it respected the general intelligence of the scholars.

Collective teaching, as I have observed, is not a method which has obtained any sanction by its adoption in the private schools in this district. In some of them, indeed, the scholars were grouped into classes for reading or spelling; but there was no oral instruction, no systematic questioning, and little or no explanation. Every scholar prepared his or her lesson independently, without any previous prelection or common explanation, and in the class repeated it in turn, the only point of affinity between the members of the class being that the lesson referred to the same subject, and was found in the same text book. In some of the better order of girls' schools there was an improvement on this

In private schools.

practice, so far as a more regular system of questioning on the meanings of words or the subject-matter of the lesson were concerned, but still leaving much to be done in the way of explanatory prelections, and in other respects to realise the advantages of collective instruction. All that was gained was some amount of stimulus from the competition of the members of the class. With these very partial exceptions, the only mode of teaching in vogue in private schools was that of the separate instruction of each scholar. Where, as was frequently the case, some twenty to thirty scholars had thus to be attended to by one master or mistress, and without any assistance, it may be easily imagined how imperfectly the duties proper to the teacher were rendered. In fact, the scholars may be said to have to grope their own way, aided only by the occasional explanation or solution of a difficulty which the teacher could give them when other demands upon his or her time permitted this to be done.

Value of the
two methods.

On the comparative merits of the two methods of instruction I deem it unnecessary to offer any comments, as I think they ought not to be looked upon as separate, but as agencies that ought always to be combined in the work of the school. I may here, however, state, in confirmation of what has been advanced in favour of collective teaching, that, apart from the educational advantages resulting from young minds being brought into contact with each other, and the stimulus given by competition, as a matter of fact, I found that wherever collective teaching was carried out a greater range of subjects was better taught, a greater amount of work was done, more effectual and sounder progress was made, and a far greater amount of intellectual activity and higher intelligence were evinced by the taught, than in those schools in which collective teaching was not adopted. But I am, at the same time, compelled to add, that collective teaching is not without its attendant evils or abuses, of which I found some examples in the public schools of my district. In some even of the superior public schools the assistants (either pupil-teachers or monitors) had what I consider far too large a share of the collective teaching, either in the gallery or the class, allotted to them, while the masters limited their work to teaching a few of the higher classes only. I have no hesitation in pronouncing this to be an abuse of the collective method, and a perversion of the aid which it was contemplated should be rendered by pupil-teachers and monitors. Whatever merits they may have in point of acquirements, their age precludes the idea of their possessing those reflective powers which are necessary to the formation of general views, and consequently, as a rule, incapacitates them for prelections and the explanation of general principles. In our public schools there is generally, I think, a want of "proper division of labour" in the work respectively assigned to the master and his assistants. The latter should be employed as far as possible in superintending that individual instruction the judicious combination of which with collective teaching is essential to rendering the education given in the school complete. The boy teacher may deal with notions

in the concrete, but he is scarcely equal to the task of treating of the abstract or generalised thought. In many instances I have found that no such distinction of the work proper to each is recognised; the assistant has to discharge duties which belong to the master, while, as I found it to be the case, the separate teaching of the scholars is imperfectly attended to. The results are perceptible, in the examination of schools, in the want of a facility in dealing with the practical details of the subjects of examination. Of this want I have pointed out illustrations in referring to the quality of instruction in arithmetic.

The methods of teaching pursued with respect to each particular subject of a school course have been sufficiently indicated in describing the quality of education to render unnecessary any further reference to them here. As a general remark on the subject, I may observe, that the methods were those adopted in public schools for popular education throughout England generally, and that the masters, more particularly where they were certificated, exhibited an average amount of skill in working out the details; they were in this respect taken altogether quite on a level with the public school teachers in the provincial districts of England. But methods of instruction are thus far mere matters of imitation,—of routine; the majority of masters imitate methods which they have seen in practice, and apply them without much regard to, or discrimination of, the difference of circumstances. In some instances which fell under my observation in this district, especially in North Wales, the masters evinced an originality in applying or devising methods of instruction to meet peculiar circumstances which gave evidence of clear and well-matured thought on methods of teaching. But the great body of the masters, even of the higher class schools, in their methods, were men of routine, and often in their application showed that they appreciated neither their spirit nor their object. Thus I found that what is technically called “elliptic questioning” was applied in a form which rendered it altogether worthless. In the course of my examination of schools, when a scholar or class was unable to answer, or gave a wrong reply to a question, it has often occurred that the teacher would rush to the rescue with a question which ill disguised that it was the suggestion of the reply. In a few cases only did the teacher show himself equal to enabling the scholar, by leading him from one step to another, to draw his own conclusions. I do not intend in making these remarks to hold out the Welsh teachers in unfavourable comparison with other teachers; on the contrary, I think they have, in difference of language and other features in the population, peculiar difficulties to contend with, and success with them, if only moderate, has in it a proportionately higher merit. The facts to which I allude, however, suggest a more general question in reference to trained masters, namely, whether the training of the Normal College, with the brief period of two years conduct of a school, is an adequate test of the qualifications of the master for his future office; whether, in fact, the cause of education would

General conclusion as to methods of instruction.

not be promoted, and a class of better fitted teachers would not be provided for our schools, if, without interference with existing regulations for the admission of certificated teachers, a higher order of examination were instituted, for which masters should be eligible at, say the end of five or seven years, and the successful competitor have proportionate advantages to the higher position which he thus attains in the profession of teaching. It is for others to determine how far such a suggestion is feasible; it is at all events desirable to elevate the work of education above mere routine, and to make the teacher something more than a copyist.

Methods of instruction in the English language.

In connection with methods of instruction, there is one feature in the schools in my district, and I believe it is found throughout the schools of Wales, which from its great importance demands special notice; it is the fact that in teaching the English language to Welsh-speaking children no plan is observed,—no definite provision by way either of books or systematic translation is made. In by far the largest proportion of the public schools in South Wales such a provision as I have referred to does not seem to be even thought of. In the large schools to which I have before adverted as established by the proprietors of works, I found schoolmasters and mistresses in charge of schools in which the great mass of the scholars were unable to speak English, while they themselves could not understand Welsh, although the schools are generally situated in country districts, and the vernacular language in use around them is Welsh. Thus the language and the books through which the great mass of the children in a school in Wales have to be educated are, to all intents and purposes, foreign to the learners. This is the formidable obstacle which the Welsh language presents to the spread of education in Wales, and it is scarcely possible by any general description to realise the difficulties which this difference of language throws in the way of the progress of the Welsh scholar. It is a difficulty which attaches itself to every branch of the school course, not less to the more mechanical departments, *e. g.*, reading and spelling, than to those in which the comprehension of subject-matter and the acquisition of knowledge are more directly implied. In reading and spelling, not only the words but the very sounds of the letters are strange to the scholar; there is neither the aid of the understanding of the meaning which the one, nor of the familiarity and analogy of sounds which the other gives to memory. So striking an anomaly in an educational point of view has not even been attempted to be grappled with, at least systematically, in the efforts which have been made with a view to the extension of education among the Welsh people. In the schools in North Wales greater attention was paid by the teachers to the interpretation of English into Welsh, and, in a few cases, translation from one language into the other, was systematically carried out; but these cases were suggestions that occurred to particular masters, and altogether were too rare to justify me in making them an exception to my remark; and in South Wales I could not discover the remotest approach to systematic aid to the scholars in public schools, in

overcoming this difficulty resulting from the scholars being ignorant of the language through which they received instruction. The knowledge of English under these circumstances is obtained as the Welsh speaking children best can, from associating with other children in the school who may know somewhat more of the language than themselves, from such occasional intercourse as they may have with the teacher during school hours, and so far as relates to school matters. But this mode of attaining the language in which the children are to receive instruction is marked by two objectionable features—the range of nomenclature is necessarily very limited, not extending beyond the necessities of the schoolroom, and it is a process which occupies a considerable portion of the school period before the scholar has made sufficient proficiency to use it as a medium of receiving information or conveying his thoughts. In the meantime there is the choice of one of two alternatives, either to leave him without the subject-matter of instruction, or, otherwise, to attempt to give it through a language which he does not understand. The latter is the practice in point of fact. Its patent absurdity scarcely merits confutation. Without a knowledge of English the child may, indeed, learn to put sounds together, but he evidently can have no understanding of the things they represent. What would be thought of the attempt to teach even an adult through the medium of a language of which he is entirely ignorant? Yet this is the practice generally adopted in schools in the districts of Wales, where Welsh is the language in use by the scholars beyond the walls of the schoolroom, in which they speak to and are addressed by their parents at home, which they use for all the ordinary purposes of life. One of the objections to thus leaving the acquirement of a knowledge of the English language to chance, is, that at every stage of the scholar's progress—in entering on each new branch of learning, till he becomes acquainted with English, he has two difficulties to encounter, where one is amply sufficient. In addition to the difficulty of comprehending the subject-matter of instruction, he has to overcome that of translation from the language which he either does not at all understand, or very imperfectly, into his own vernacular tongue. He has imposed upon him a labour, scarcely less irksome than that of Sisyphus, of continuously transferring the forms of thought peculiar to one language into those of another. And this too for a mere child. Under the circumstances it is surprising that many of the schools in the country districts of Wales accomplish as much as they do, confessedly inadequate as the amount of education they are able to give is to the present standard of requirements. These difficulties are exhibited in a striking point of view by looking at the relative amount of time, to the whole school period, which is occupied with the existing system in introducing a Welsh-speaking child to such a knowledge of the English language as will enable him to avail himself of it for educational purposes. In the Appendix I have given the opinions on this subject of schoolmasters of considerable experience. The

estimate on such a subject is necessarily approximative only; but it is sufficiently near to show what a large proportion of the school time of a Welsh scholar is occupied in acquiring what in the majority of cases proves to be an imperfect knowledge of the language, through which instruction is conveyed to him. I believe that with the adoption of the method which I have given below, and the more methodic system of learning English, which is a feature in that method, the English language would be acquired in a shorter time, while a real progress would be made in knowledge of the subject-matter of education.

Value of inter-linear translation.

Some more systematic method of dealing with the relations of the monoglot Welsh scholar to the language in which education is imparted, is thus forcibly suggested; and, for such a state of things as I have adverted to, I think the remedy is obvious. In districts where Welsh is the vernacular tongue, the school-masters and other teachers in a public school, whether assistants, pupil-teachers, or monitors, should have a sound knowledge of both English and Welsh, and should give at least the substance of the lessons in the various branches of the school course, in the language in general use. Further, to facilitate the object, books in the principal elementary branches of education should be prepared, with an interlined translation, to enable the scholar to obtain a knowledge of the subject-matter of learning in his own language, and to translate it into English. These translations should be so arranged, as gradually to give the scholar the command of a copious vocabulary of the English tongue, at least, sufficiently copious to enable him to use English with ease for the purposes of education, and for the ordinary business of life. By a systematic selection of works, comparatively few books would suffice for this purpose, and they would for the most part be of an elementary character. The leading features of a useful education would thus, without sacrifice of time, be placed within the reach of the Welsh-speaking portion of the population resorting to the public schools in this country. There would, at least, be no stumbling block at the very threshold of learning, to cause them to waste years in efforts to secure education, and their further progress would, as far as language is concerned, be easy. I believe that the adoption of this method would, in comparatively few years, produce an important and beneficial change in the results of the public education of this country; and that instruction in subject-matter through Welsh, in schools in country districts, would accelerate the progress of the English language among the people.

Objection to the use of Welsh in day schools.

The objection urged against the adoption of a method by which the Welsh language would be so largely used as the medium of conveying the subject-matter of instruction is, that the use of Welsh for the purposes to which I have referred, would be an obstacle to the acquirement of a knowledge of the English language by children in the country schools of Wales. The present unsystematic practice of the use, in the schools of Wales, of a language which the learners do not understand, as the medium of

instruction, derives its sanction from a notion prevailing among teachers, and acquiesced in by the general public, that it aids the acquirement of a knowledge of the English language by Welsh-speaking children. If such were the case, I think that the end attained would be so important, that it would counterbalance some of the obvious disadvantages which a Welsh child labours under, in having to obtain knowledge through another language than its own. But I believe that the object is not attained, and that while the use of English, as the exclusive vehicle of instruction, has proved a serious obstacle to the Welsh child's progress in the subject-matter of education, it has done nothing, or next to nothing, for the extension of the English language into districts where it has not been introduced by commerce, the influx of English settlers, or other causes tending to stimulate the population to acquire a knowledge of English, by the necessity of using it for the common purposes of life. Not only has a substantial advantage thus been lost in the pursuit of a shadow, but the practice to which I refer has been attended with another consequence—the neglect of system in introducing the Welsh child to a knowledge of English; not a single book in use in the schools has a translation by which the learner is enabled to turn English into Welsh, or *vice versa*, nor are there any means for proceeding by those gradual stages in the acquirement of English, which are necessary to obtaining a thorough knowledge of the language. In no other case of teaching languages is there an absence of all means of acquiring the knowledge of a foreign tongue, analogous to what we find in the books which are placed in the hands of children in the schools of the Principality. The result is, that after being, perhaps, for some two, three, or even four years in a school in a country district, the pupil is launched into life, not only with a very imperfect knowledge of the subject-matter of education, but with a knowledge of the English language limited to a comprehension more or less confused of the rules in the “Tutor's Assistant,” or some elementary lesson book, which has been placed in his hands. In after-life it will be found that the greater portion of the amount of English thus attained, without system or connexion, has been lost—has been, with the exception of a few stray words or sentences, wholly obliterated. It is seldom that a Welshman derives from the country school which he attends such a knowledge of English as will enable him in after-life, unless he has opportunities of ulterior cultivation of the language, to read English works with that pleasure which arises from a power of fully appreciating the language in which they are written. We thus find that in Welsh districts, where schools giving instruction through English have been established for years, no adequate result has been obtained, so far as the extension of the English language among the population is concerned. Welsh is still the vernacular tongue, the language in every-day use; the Welsh periodical is read, the Welsh newspaper is taken in, and Welsh services are resorted to for the purposes of religious instruction or worship.

I cannot help thinking that there is in this objection to the use of the Welsh language as a medium of elementary instruction, a confusion of thought which strongly suggests that the subject has received little attention from the teachers of Wales, and from others who take an interest in the education of the Welsh people. The objection evidently proceeds upon the notion that the acquiring of subject-matter through the English language is a saving of time. The time, it is said, occupied in reading Welsh, with a view to understanding the subject-matter, would be more profitably employed in acquiring a knowledge of subject-matter through English, and thus learning both at once, or, to use the homely illustration of a schoolmaster in justification of the existing practice, it would be "killing two birds with one stone." It requires, however, no very profound analysis to perceive that this notion is founded on an entire misapprehension of the thought process involved in the whole case. It is evident, *e.g.*, that in reading an English book, the child that knows Welsh only, must render into his own language what he reads, in order to understand it; it is a process of continuous translation, mental or *vivá voce*, of English into Welsh. It may be observed that there is quite as much use of Welsh in giving instruction through the English direct, as in giving the subject-matter through the medium of the Welsh, and translating that into English; the sole difference being, that in the former case Welsh is used mentally, in the latter orally, or *vivá voce*. In point of fact, the only distinction between the two methods is that of an inversion of the thought processes, the processes themselves being identical. In the one case the child finds the notion through the medium of his own language, and then finds the corresponding English word; in the other, he begins with the English word, translates it into the Welsh, and obtains the notion in this case also through his vernacular. What he does gain by the first process is, that he secures the subject-matter without translation; while by the latter, translation, or two sets of signs instead of one, must be gone through in order to obtain the sense of what he reads or learns. The alleged economy of time, by the direct employment of English in communicating instruction, is more in seeming than in reality, for, in addition to what has been above urged as to the processes in both methods being the same, it may be observed, that what is gained in point of acquisition of English, is lost in subject-matter. The fact is, there is no gain with the present practice, for with the subject-matter well understood beforehand, the language to be attained is acquired more readily.

This reasoning is borne out by facts. In the public schools in South Wales, where no systematic interpretation, or special instruction, in the English language is found, where, in fact, the difference in language is not recognised in the schoolroom, English is neither so well nor so extensively taught as in the schools of North Wales, where more attention is given to interpretation, and the teaching of the English language in many cases constitutes a special branch of instruction. Yet the South Wales

scholars have advantages for progress in English, which those of North Wales do not enjoy. I found also in the schools throughout my district, that wherever interpretation and special instruction in the English language were even very partially adopted, the progress of the scholars in that language was greater than in those schools where the general practice prevailed. The facts confirm the theory, and leave no doubt in my mind, that the adoption of the Welsh language as the medium of elementary instruction in country schools in Wales would, though the assertion may seem a paradox, accelerate the progress of English throughout the country.

Such, my Lord Duke and Gentlemen, are the leading features in the condition of education in my district—a district marked by great peculiarities, as it respects both its physical character and the social condition of its population. These peculiarities constitute my apology, if such be needed, for the extent to which this Report has been carried out, and the variety of topics which it embraces. To the general conclusions that may be deduced from the evidence and my personal observation, it is not within my province to advert. But without trespassing on the limits assigned to me, I may say, that in no part of the United Kingdom does the subject of general education assume a more interesting, important, and even urgent aspect than in this district; for it has to do with a population which, under the rapid development of the resources of the Principality, is in a state of transition from old and long established to new influences. Whether in its future it will take its place high among civilised communities, or the reverse, will among other conditions be dependent on the solution which this great question of education will receive.

I have the honour to be,

My Lord Duke and Gentlemen,

Your most obedient servant,

JNO. JENKINS.

To the Commissioners

Appointed to inquire into the

State of Popular Education in England.

CONTENTS OF APPENDIX.

	Pages
APPENDIX A.—Evidence on the Social and General Educational Condition of the Population in the—	
North Wales Unions - - - - -	573-585
South do. do. - - - - -	585-598
APPENDIX B.—Replies to Questions issued by the Commissioners	- 599-617
APPENDIX C.—Replies to Questions on Education as affected by the pecu- liar Features of Wales	- 617-630
APPENDIX D.—The Welsh Language in Schools, &c.	- 631-632
APPENDIX E.—Miscellaneous ; Mode of Payments in Works Schools ; Income and Expenditure of an Iron Works School	- 632-634

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A.

Appendix A. contains the evidence on the social and more general features in the educational condition of the population of the Welsh Specimen District. In all cases the information under this head was obtained by personal interviews with the parties who furnished it, and from full notes taken at the time. As the subjects taken up in the agricultural and manufacturing portions of the district are widely different, I have divided the information into two parts, as it relates to the North Wales (Agricultural), or South Wales (Manufacturing, &c.) Unions. At the head of the information supplied to me by each party, I have given an outline of the subjects referred to in his evidence.]

EVIDENCE ON THE SOCIAL AND GENERAL EDUCATIONAL CONDITION OF THE POPULATION IN THE NORTH WALES UNIONS.

The Rev. ROBT. ELLIS, Brithdir, near Dolgellay.

[Feeling, in the rural districts, of the importance of instruction in English.—Obstacles to education from the scattered character and poverty of the population.—Mode of support of the school at Rhiw-spardin.]

The Rev. Robert Ellis, Independent Minister, Brithdir, observes:—

There is a great desire for instruction among farmers and the working people in this district. They feel the importance of having English instruction, as they know they must send their children into the world, and schooling is necessary to their getting on in it. The population is so scattered in this district, and the nature of the country such as, with the poverty of the general population, to present great difficulties in the way of establishing schools within convenient distances, and generally one district is unable to supply a school of itself. The districts of Brithdir, Rhiw-spardin, and Tabor (or Tytheny-garreg), are unable severally to support a school, but they can do so jointly, and they are now looking out for ground to build a schoolroom on. The school at Rhiw-spardin is supported by a number of farmers and farm labourers, making up between them a certain amount. They calculate on 60 scholars, of which 40 children of small farmers can pay 2*d.* a week, 20 children of labourers and other poor persons 1*d.* a week. They then go to the neighbouring gentry to get them to promise to “contribute” a child or more to the school. This means to promise to pay for a child. The school at Rhiw-spardin changes the place of holding the school, to meet the convenience of the districts that contribute to it. One year it is held at Brithdir, another at

Quaker's Chapel, and another at Rhiw-apardin. There is generally a less attendance from the part of the district which is furthest from where the school is. Miss Richards, of Caerynwch, has established a school at Brithdir, for teaching sewing to girls,—it is held every day in summer, and on alternate days in winter, I think on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. The wages of farm servants are from 8*l.* to 15*l.* a year, depending on what they can do. Farm labourers earn about 1*s.* 6*d.* a day with meat, taking the year round; about 2*s.* a day in the hay season, and 1*s.* with meat in winter.

Mr. MORRIS JONES, Farmer, Talyllyn.

[Want of educational provision at Talyllyn.—Corris (Aberllyfenni) school—circumstances connected with its establishment.—Wages and moral condition of the labouring population.]

Mr. Morris Jones, who has an extensive sheep farm, which principally consists of a portion of the Cader Idris "mountain," observes:—

There is no school at Talyllyn; the nearest school is at Corris, about four and a half miles hence, called Aberllyfenni. It was established by Mr. Jones, of Trefri, a gentleman who holds quarries in the neighbourhood. He pays 4*l.* a year in aid of the support of the master. Mr. Jones wished a National schoolmaster, but the people were opposed to having the Catechism taught, and their children sent to Church on Sundays. The school was afterwards conducted on the open (non-denominational) system. The present master, who was formerly a quarry clerk, is a Calvinistic Methodist. The workmen and others make a subscription to support the master. There is a small chapel at Ty'nyfrydd, where a school is occasionally kept. The farmers and labourers are anxious to give education to their children as far as they can. They subscribe more to the school at Ty'nyfrydd than they would have to pay at Mr. Jones' school, because it is more convenient, the distance not being so great. I think the people in this district are willing to make any reasonable sacrifice to get their children educated; but they are poor; the farmers are small farmers, principally of sheep farms. Mrs. Jones, Llwynyern, has a school at Gwargeiliog. The wages of farm servants vary from 16*l.* to 18*l.* a year; female servants from 4*l.* to 7*l.* The morals of the people in this neighbourhood are generally good. There are cases of bastardy, but they are exceptions to the rule. They are not given to drinking in this neighbourhood, they are sober and orderly. The whole population go to the Sunday school, the old as well as the young. Brynecrug (two miles from Towyn) is the next school in that direction (westerly). Brynecrug is about six miles distant from Talyllyn.

Mr. JOHN EVANS, Aberganolwyn.

[Absence of provision for education at Aberganolwyn.—Abortive effort to establish a school.—Reasons of failure.—Illustrations of desire for education.—Inadequate resources of the resident population to provide schools.]

Mr. John Evans, who keeps a small grocer's shop at Aberganolwyn (Par. Talyllyn) about two miles from Talyllyn village, and also a workman, said:—

There is no day school in this neighbourhood, but great necessity of it. Children from 10 to 12 years old are sent from here to Brynecrug

school. There are 50 children in this village and its immediate neighbourhood, who are of school age. Nearly the whole of these have never had a day's school, because there is no school near enough for them to return home from at night. This number is from a return got up with a view to getting a day school established in the parish. About 12 months since, a number, principally of workmen, quarrymen, several small farmers, and farm labourers, attempted to get up a day school here. The parties subscribing gave different amounts according to their ability, some 5s. a year, some 10s., some 1*l.* and one 1*l.* 10s. We calculated on making from 20*l.* to 25*l.* a year secure for the teacher, and he in addition to get 1*l.* a head for each child. The amount subscribed by the parties we hoped to make from 10s. to 12s. a week. This object failed, because we could not get from the neighbourhood enough to make up the amount we wished to guarantee the master. There are young men around here, working on farms, who have saved a little money, who go to the school at Brynerug in winter to get learning. Many of them are above 20 years of age; they want to learn reading (English), writing, and cyphering. In the Sunday school in which I am one of the teachers, there are old people above 60 years of age, who have learned to read the (Welsh) Bible well. I know as a fact parties who have done this. The small farmers' children are quite as badly off for education in this neighbourhood as those of the workmen. The landowners here are Mr. Wynne, M.P., Mr. Nanney, Mr. Scott, and Mr. Geo. Jonathan. We did not apply to them. The school might have been carried out, but the clergyman so far did not second it, by representing it as impossible to get it. If he had actively aided it, we could have gone on, as we might then have had the aid of the gentry and landowners. The people of this neighbourhood are in favour of a school free from any particular sect or religious party, such as the Church or any other. From 12*l.* to 15*l.* a year is the amount the neighbourhood could make up for the support of a schoolmaster. I think nothing would be of so much advantage to the population of this part as a good school. We see many who have a little learning leave for England or go abroad. A man who goes abroad from here goes to school for a short time to get schooling. I hold promises from workmen of subscriptions towards a school, altogether amounting to 8*l.* We wished that three persons should superintend the school, to see that nothing sectarian was introduced, nor Church, nor Calvinistic Methodist, nor anything else. The workmen here earn from 13s. to 14s. a week.

Mr. HUMPHREY DAVIES, Abercorris.

[General desire for instruction in English, &c. on the part of the population.—The Aberllyfenni school.—Moral character of the population.]

Mr. Humphrey Davies, Abercorris, said :—

The people in this district (the immediate neighbourhood of the Corris mines) are very desirous of having instruction in English, accounts, and other useful learning. The school at Abercorris (Aberllyfenni) is raised by subscription. I am in favour of Government grants. The schoolhouse was built by Mr. Jones, Trefri, with the view of being conducted on the National system. Mr. Jones's agent was a strong churchman. It was not supported by the people, and they did not send their children. The teacher was a young man. Mr. Jones, when the school fell off, formed a committee, to which the management

of the school was confided. He invited the clergyman of the parish of Talylyn to co-operate with it, but he did not come. He took men of every name for the committee. There are on it three or four Calvinistic Methodists, one Independent, and one Churchman, Mr. Jones himself. The neighbourhood, although the quarries employ 300 men, is quite peaceable and moral; nine out of ten are teetotalers. There are three benefit clubs, one at Talylyn and two here. The farmers are generally small farmers, but some rent large sheep farms. The people very generally speak English in this place.

[Difficulties in the way of education extension.—Early withdrawal of children.—Church and Dissenters.—The public school at Aberllyfenni; particulars of its establishment.—Morals of the working population.—Absence of landed proprietors.—Welsh language.—Illegitimacy.—Propensity to falsehood.]

R. D. PRICE (late Jones), Esq., Trefri, a Magistrate of the county of Merioneth, says—

The people of this district generally appreciate education, but still children are taken away from school early, and parents keep them at home because they are useful. The farmers in this part of the country are a very poor class, they would almost on an average be renters of from 40*l.* to 50*l.* a year. There are no private schools in the neighbourhood of the quarries; they withdraw children generally at from 12 to 13 years of age. There are great difficulties as to education in this neighbourhood. The lower orders, or working classes, are dissenters—the rich belong to the Church—and hence the difficulty of uniting them in the support of schools. The school at the Corris quarries was established on the National system by me. A master was obtained from the Carmarthen Training Institution, and a grant from the National Society. There were at first from 80 to 90 children on the books; in less than 12 months the number was only 15. The master was a bigotted and indiscreet churchman, and had no tact in dealing with those around him. He wanted the children to go to church. A representation was made to me by the school committee, and it was suggested that the schools should be placed on the open (non-denominational) system. I acceded to it. At present there are above 100 children, but half of them ought to be in an infant school. The people of this country would be content with secular instruction. There was a difficulty in the case of the Aberdovey public school. The committee consisted of an equal number of Dissenters and Churchmen, but they did not go on smoothly. The question at issue was whether the school should be a church school, or one to which the Dissenters could be admitted. A school (on the British principle) was ultimately established. In reference to the character of the population, I consider them honest; the worst feature in this district is bastardy. The labouring classes marry young. Their cottages are not what they ought to be. The quarrymen earn better wages than the agricultural labourers. I believe the former can get 1*l.* 1*s.* a week. It is chiefly a work that any able-bodied man can perform, but slate dressing and slate splitting require skilled labour; indeed, unless a man begins slate making when he is quite young, he rarely becomes a good hand. They are nearly all teetotalers, and very well conducted. A policeman in this part of the country is a farce, so far as the preservation of public order goes. Nearly all the cases that come before us, as magistrates, are bastardy cases, and such

offences as riding on carts without reins. They scarcely ever get drunk. The means of education are defective on the sea coast. This neighbourhood suffers much from absentee landlords. The landlords generally speaking know very little of their tenantry, especially the larger proprietors. They know nothing of the population, and the people know nothing of them. In the bastardy cases brought before the magistrates the parties often perjure themselves most awfully. I consider the Welsh language a very great drawback on the improvement of the population, and on the prosperity even of the working population. It prevents intercourse with Englishmen, and it is difficult, with its prevalence, to have communication with the people of the country. I am often at sea in communicating with my people, without my agent. Few of the landlords of the country can speak Welsh. In schools there should be both languages. Wages at Aberdovey, which is a sea port, are good, and there is no distress among the people. As a maritime population they are a well conducted good people. They are religious and even superstitious; one very seldom hears them swear. The bane of the district in my opinion is that Welsh is almost universally spoken, consequently there is little or no communication between the lower classes and the proprietors, especially the large ones. The clergy, as a rule, are inefficient.

[Defective school provision at Towyn.—Alleged influence of this on the Church.—State of Towyn charity school house.—Sunday schools principally in the hands of Dissenters.]

The Reverend DAVID DAVIES, Perpetual Curate of Pennal, said—

The state of education at Towyn is bad, the means of proceeding with respect to it are dissatisfactory. When I first came here, nearly 40 years since, there were above 700 communicants at Towyn Church, at the great Easter Festival. It took Good Friday, Saturday, and Easter Sunday to give the communion. There are very few communicants in Towyn Church now—not half a dozen sometimes. I ascribe this to the want of a Church school. (Mr. Davies here gave particulars of the present state of Lady Moyre's and Corbet's Charities for the school at Towyn, and of the Abergroes Charity for the township of Is-yr-Afon, in the parish of Pennal, which were substantially the same as those given elsewhere by Mr. Parry.) The school house under Lady Moyre's Charity, has fallen in for want of repairs, and there is no school held here (Towyn) now. The public day schools at Aberdovey and Pennal are on the open principle. There are no Church Sunday schools in Towyn and Pennal parishes. These schools are all connected with Dissenters.

[Provision for education in the district (West Merioneth).—Different character of the Welsh and English peasantry.—Illegitimacy and its attendant features.—Absence of landed proprietors and superior clergy; results on the character of the population.—Popularity of Dissent, and its causes.—Education unsuitable to the class which receives it.—Provision for religious instruction in the parish of Llan-gelynin.]

MAURICE TEMPLEMAN PUGH, Esq., a Magistrate of the County of Merioneth, says—

I do not think this country is altogether badly off for education. There is hardly a large parish in which there was not sufficient left in

former days for education, according to the circumstances of the place. There is in the parish of Celynin, in which I reside, an endowed school which was reported upon by the Charity Commissioners. There are also Sunday schools, and some small schools to which a child brings a candle or a penny by way of remuneration. The pauper children are also provided with education. I believe that the great defect in the education of the Welsh population is not inculcating a feeling of moral duty—that feeling is much wanting among the people. The medical men say they cannot get them to keep their dwellings clean. I am myself a native of Dorsetshire and have therefore had the opportunity of forming a comparison between the Welsh and English peasantry. There was a pride among the latter (when I lived in that country) taken in their cottages and gardens. In this country the cottages are not tidy—the peasantry have no gardens, trusting to the potato farmers allowing portions of fields to those who have families, thus doing away with an interest in the place. This, I think, shows a low sense of obligation. There is a movement now to induce a better feeling in the cottagers by holding floral and agricultural meetings; one at Machynlleth, patronised by the Right Hon. Earl Vane and his Countess. It is but due to the noble earl to say that he was the first in this part of Wales in introducing this laudable custom, and no doubt if persevered in, will give them more interest in their homes. I think the common people in this part of Wales are given to a want of veracity often in trifling circumstances; but I have in the cases of affiliation brought before the magistrates never known the woman to take a false oath. The cases of bastardy formerly brought before the justices were those taking place among parties “courting;” but it is not so now. Young men deceive women and then emigrate. The great evil in the domestic arrangement of farm servants in this country is that they sleep in out-buildings, and hence have opportunities of getting out at night, and of going poaching, courting, &c. I think there have been more cases of dark fornication lately than formerly in this part of the country. Of four such cases two were those of respectable farmers. There are no resident gentry in this part of the country. Most of the large estates have not their proprietors residing on them. I consider the Welsh language, in some respects, a nuisance. It is a poetic language, and the preachers using it in that way takes with the great body of the people, who are more excitable, and induces them to go to the chapel in preference to church; the chapel holding out more inducement, it being a more lively religion, with frequent large gatherings, and many grades of offices held out to the ambitious, (See Reports of '46 and '47), and also more on an equality one with another, so dear to a people whose individuality was scarcely perceptible half a century ago; recent wealth and large farms, and larger estates, will in time have its effect in another way. The people are generally dissenters. There are a great many lay improprators throughout this part of the country. The Bishop of Lichfield has the large tithes of several parishes. There is no rector between this place, Towyn, and Dolgelly. I consider the absence of rectors and landed proprietors a great drawback on the moral condition of the population. Where there is neither a clergyman nor squire in a position to maintain an establishment, the population lose much in having no model of conduct before them—no ladies to encourage and advise them as to little domestic arrangements and comforts, and to attend to their wants. The Welsh people, farmers and others, in this part of the country, wish to acquire the English language because it promotes their own interests. Generally speaking I consider the Reports of the Commissioners for Inquiry into Education in Wales,

1846-7, correct. There are no dame schools in this county, and I consider this is a want, as the instruction given in them, though of a very humble character, is still useful, especially where there are no other resources for instruction; they give a certain amount of moral instruction to fit the scholars for the duties of their station. In the modern schools instruction in book learning is carried too far, as it leads those who receive it to look down upon such employments as those of domestic servants. At Aberdovey you could with difficulty get a girl 16 years of age for a servant of all work, because they are too highly educated, and they hope to get to London or some other large place. One cause of the great prevalence of Dissent in this district is the want of churches at a reasonable distance. The parish in which I reside is about 15 miles in length, but on an average little more than a mile broad, I have myself to go to the parish church six miles. There are eight dissenting chapels in this parish. There is an endowed school at Llwyngwriil [Par. Lanegryn.]

[Suggestions as to local statistics of education.—Condition of the population of Penrhyn-deu-draeth. Education of pauper children, and children of poor parents. Suggestions as to conditions of grants in aid of building schools by the Committee of Council—necessity of preliminary inquiries. Social and moral condition of the population in Merionethshire—absence of crime. Illegitimacy. Charities—their unfavourable influence on the poorer classes. State of dwellings (of farmers and cottagers) in Merionethshire.]

DAVID WILLIAMS, Esq., of Castle-deudraeth, a Magistrate of the Counties of Merioneth and Carnarvon, said—

I formerly and for 18 years acted as Clerk of the Peace for the county of Merioneth. Sometime since I procured a statistical return of the population of Port-madoc, the nearest town to my residence, and I found that the number of children between 4 and 15 years old at that place were about 600. I am of opinion that similar statistics should be taken at every place by the collector of poor rates every year, and that he should be paid from the parish funds. It is impossible that the educational provision of a parish or neighbourhood can be ascertained in any other way. A partially compulsory system might do; and is not without sanction in our practice. The people of Wales are generally very anxious for education, but a great bar is their inability to clothe their children. I have known such a reason given for not sending children to school. They could pay a penny or twopence a week, but were too poor to clothe their children. There are some 50 or 60 of this kind in Penrhyn. I some time since made a motion in the Ffestiniog Board of Guardians to pay for the children of paupers who could be induced to attend the school at that place; it was adopted. Some were sent, but some do not avail themselves on that account (want of clothing). So far as pauper children are concerned, the provisions of the Act authorising them to have their schooling paid for might be extended to compel the parents or guardians of children dependent on the parish to be sent to school. This should be tried first in applying any compulsory power. It would, perhaps, act like the "thin end of the wedge." This might also be extended to all orphans, children of labouring poor, not receiving parish relief. This principle is already recognised by our laws, and is found in the Lord Chancellor's power over minors. Convenient and commodious school-rooms induce parents to send their children to school. In the case of

Penrhyn the number in attendance was doubled by the erection of a new school room. The clergy commit frequent mistakes in building schools near the church, which is often inconveniently situated. The school at Llan-frothen, for instance, the next parish to this, ought to be at Garreg. The Privy Council should, in my opinion, institute inquiries into the position of every site, and as to the wants of each neighbourhood, and also that there was no previous provision before they make any grants of the public money. At Penrhyn, for instance, the present British school is quite sufficient for the requirements of the place, and as the Council made a grant for building it, I think that in case an application be made for another grant for a national school, which I understand is in contemplation, it ought to be refused, and I would suggest the adoption of this as a rule in *all* cases by the Privy Council; for very frequently we see two schools in the same place where only one is wanted, and you often see one of the buildings empty and getting into ruin. Where this is not the case, and where the place is not large enough for two schools, they injure each other and create party feeling. The Privy Council would, therefore, do well to take a little trouble to ascertain this fact in each instance before making a grant. I also think they would do well to inquire a little more carefully into the validity of titles. I have known instances in which titles on which grants were given, were not worth twopence; they might not be disturbed, but they could scarcely be called safe. The title to the land granted by me for schools was good. When I made this grant I answered the questions addressed to me, but those questions might in many cases have been consistently answered, and yet leave the title insecure, without more minute inquiry. The means of education in North Wales are generally good, but school houses are indifferent. In the mountainous districts there are places without schools, National or British. The Privy Council ought, I think, to call for a return, statistical and otherwise, of the educational wants of each district before they make any grants. The funds of the charity schools I believe to be generally very much misapplied. Some of these funds are taken to pay the Guardians for attending the Boards and for other purposes. The Guardians are generally paid at some such rate as 2s. 6d. per meeting, and as they cannot be paid out of the poor rate, they appropriate charities or church rates, or a private rate for that purpose. The amount of crime in this county (Merioneth) is very small: we hardly ever hear of anything beyond pilfering, stealing clothes off drying grounds or fences, or potatoes or turnips out of the fields, and generally this is done by trampers, and almost all the cases at Quarter Sessions are against tramps. In our Petty Sessions stealing wood out of plantations for firing is often an offence brought before us. I do not know but of one case in 15 years of stealing from a house in Merionethshire. There is a large population in the quarries; they are all Welsh. There is no crime there. If an Englishman or an Irishman come among them, the Welsh make it too hot for him to remain there long. The county police is of no great use in this county, and I do not think they have been successful in discovering crime anywhere in Wales. I have always held that an expensive police force is not necessary in rural districts in Wales; but I have always advocated their introduction into towns. Bastardy cases are not so many now as they were 20 years ago. When these cases are brought before the magistrate they often present some grossly immoral features: for example, the evidence occasionally shows that a sister has been in bed with a sister when intercourse takes place, and also that fathers and mothers sleep in the same room but in another bed; and in giving evidence the witnesses speak of such transactions without

any appearance of shame, and appear to consider it as a comparatively light affair. Many marry after this sort of immoral intercourse has taken place, sometimes before, and sometimes after the birth of the child, but very seldom after. This practice does not prevail as it formerly did among the middle class of farmers and small tradesmen. It never prevailed to any extent amongst the better class of farmers and tradespeople. It is now confined almost entirely to the lower class in the rural districts. There are now about three or four women in the Ffestiniog Union Workhouse who have had bastard children, and eight or ten illegitimate children. Most of these women, if it is shown they are seduced, and they do not trip a second time, will regain their social position among their neighbours; but if they trip a second time they lose caste, and are not afterwards employed by farmers and others who require domestic servants of that grade. I think that the corroborative evidence in bastardy cases gives too much impunity to the man, who takes as much care as he can that there shall be none such. Some men have been known to boast of this. I do not find much wilful false swearing on the part of witnesses generally, but I am afraid that there is not so much regard paid to the sanctity of truth in this country among the labouring population as there is in English counties. Here parties will prevaricate for friends, in some instances most improperly, which is a feature not often witnessed in England. In Ireland there is still more of it. The bastardy cases are not, however, greater in this country than in some of the rural districts of England, nor so great as in Cumberland and Westmoreland, as is shown by the returns made to Parliament some time ago. There are no professed prostitutes, no street walking, no solicitations, in the towns immediately surrounding this neighbourhood, viz., Portmadoc, Bala, Dolgellay, or Pwllheli. Though Portmadoc is a sea-port town, there is very little drinking there and no disorder. Charities given in small sums, or loaves of bread given to the poor, are of no good at all. Alms-giving may have been necessary in past times, but it is not necessary now, and, in fact, is detrimental. Many give charities in sums of money and in clothing, and occasionally in weekly pensions. Families who depend principally on these charities are often the most worthless; where it exists it is so marked that the Guardians of Unions complain of it, and it is always the case that where any of these pensioners apply for relief it is refused them, or only given to them to make up the pension to the sums that would otherwise be allowed, so that the pensions go, in fact, in aid of the poor-rate, and they encourage the poor people to be idle and not self-reliant. The best of all charities to the poor is to give them constant employment, and pay them liberally for what they can do, though that might not be worth the money paid them. If charitable people did this instead of giving them money as a reward for, or encouragement to idleness, it would be a real blessing, and much more appreciated by the poor themselves. Every decrepit old man and old woman can do *something* and that something can be found out in every neighbourhood. Let the charitable employ the helpless poor in this something, and give each a shilling a day more or less for what they do. These alms therefore cease to be a benefaction. The cottage buildings in the country districts in this neighbourhood are generally very ill constructed. They have earth floors and no lofts or division of rooms; but in those built by working men of late years there is some improvement. In farmhouses built within the last 20 or 30 years there were no drains. You will see dung heaps in front of the door, and other objectionable arrangements. The farmers' residences are still very

defective, and they have made less improvement than the working classes, as far as this neighbourhood is concerned. The average wages of agricultural workmen in this neighbourhood are 12s. a week, some earn 15s., but the journeymen can earn at an average 25s. per week.

[Moral and Social condition of the population. The Portmadoc National School has no compulsory Church regulations.]

Mr. JNO. THOMAS, Agent, Portmadoc, and Secretary of the Portmadoc National School, said :—

The population of Portmadoc is principally composed of people who come from a distance—from Carnarvonshire and Merionethshire, and of sailors. I have been settled here six years. The general character of the population as to morality is fair. I am Secretary of the National Schools in this place. The parents are not anxious to send their children to school. In the hours in which school is held there are quite as many children playing in the streets as there are children in the two schools. There is not so much disposition among the sailors to get learning as there ought to be. The National School here was opened in January last (1858). The proprietors of the business establishments here, the Rector of the Parish and others, thought that the British School was not adequate to furnishing education to the number of children who were in the parish. The grant in aid from the Privy Council was 624*l.*; the voluntary contributions 800*l.*, the gift of the site being received as a subscription. There is no compulsory use of the Catechism in this school, and no compulsion to go to Church. This is a rule embodied in the form of a resolution by the promoters. Dissenters send their children to the school. The great majority of the children are of dissenting parents; they could not be otherwise, as there are few of the population belonging to the Church. There is no grog allowance to sailors on sea in vessels belonging to this port, but there is an allowance to sailors and hobblers in loading.

[Abuses of Charities in North Wales. Small (General) charities should be applied to educational purposes.]

JAMES REES, Esq., High Bailiff of the County Court of Carnarvon, Pwllheli, and Portmadoc, and Proprietor of the "Carnarvon and Denbigh Herald," and "Herald Cymraeg" Newspapers, says :—

I think that the charities in North Wales are much abused. The Charity Commissioners, at the time of their inquiry, should have had power to compel parties to give information respecting them. The small charities given to the poor, in loaves of bread or small sums of money, ought to be amalgamated into one or more sums to be appropriated to education. The charity benefactions, given for the purpose of alms, are of no good—they imply, in point of fact, that the Poor Law is inoperative. They should go towards education in poor districts—and the schools should be under inspection. In the populous districts in this part of the country, the provision for education is fair,—but remote parts of the country are ill-provided. I would amalgamate the funds, arising from the charities referred to, specially for the establishment of schools in central localities where there is a scattered

population. I think this point of great importance—it is an opinion I have held and advocated for many years.

[Condition of the population. Llanfachreth School. Relative amount of Church and Dissent.]

The Reverend OSBORNE WILLIAMS, Perpetual Curate of Llanfachreth, says :—

Labour is in good demand here ; wages are from 12s. to 13s. a-week. The population in this parish is very scattered ; the parish is about ten miles by five in extent. The farmers are small farmers ; the farms are principally sheep farms. There was a day school in the parish till last October. It was a private school, principally supported by voluntary contributions, and by the late Lady Vaughan of Rûg. Sir Robert Vaughan subsequently to Lady Vaughan's death, declined to continue the subscription ; but he has more recently promised to renew it. The children of the poor paid 1d. per week, if superior farmers they paid more. The school fees amounted to 8l. or 10l. a-year.

The farmers supported the school well till latterly, when the master, who was there at the time, did not give complete satisfaction. Sir Robert Vaughan, in consideration of 15l. a-year, placed a certain number of children in the school—and these scholars [the Rûg scholars] were taught to read Welsh and learn the Catechism in that language ; then they were instructed in English. Welsh, to some extent, would be decidedly necessary in the schools in this part of the country, as the people do not know a word of English. The great mass of the population are Nonconformists. Collectively, they are far more numerous than the Church, but the Church would be probably as strong as any of them singly. The Calvinistic Methodists are the prevailing denomination in this part of the country, particularly among the working orders and the small farmers. This is to be attributed to their zeal, especially in preaching. In the Church the clergy are generally Oxford or Cambridge men, and they cannot compete with the others in speaking on a level with the minds of the people. The people did not object to the teaching of the Church Catechism in the school—but their children were not compelled to go to church. The people are generally sober and moral. I do not know that there is more illegitimacy among them than among the English. The women never turn out harlots ; they are remarkable for that. Llanfachreth is a perpetual curacy, value 100l. a-year. The lay proprietor is Sir R. Vaughan. The large tithes of the parish amount to about 300l. a-year.

Mr. DAVID ROBERTS, Corwen, said :—

Those who most want education in this district are farmers' children. They are scattered up and down the country where there are often no schools within a reasonable distance, whereas the children, even of paupers in a village, can be sent to a school. I do not think the charities, which are numerous here, lessen exertion or depress the energies of the population, because they are too small ; but they are of little good. They do not lessen rates. The pauper children in the Union are sent to one of the public schools in the town. This arrangement, so far as I have heard, is a satisfactory one.

Mr. EDWARDS, Postmaster, Corwen, said:—There are several bequests here for giving different sums to poor people, from 10s. to 1s., at Christmas or other seasons. I think charities of this kind are injurious in their operation. Many make themselves poor in order to get the charity. They depend upon it and do not exert themselves. There is a great want of schools for girls here. Since the establishment of the public schools so many girls, daughters of tradesmen, go to those schools that they are worse off than formerly for schools, for the particular branches of female education. Those who can afford it are obliged to send their daughters to schools in England, or at least at a distance.

The following information, so far as it is local, relates to a portion of Merionethshire out of, but in the immediate neighbourhood of, the Specimen District. It is given as it relates to an educational charity; and, in its more general features, illustrates the school provision in the Western parts of Merionethshire.

[Deficiency of educational provision at Towyn. Attempts to re-establish an endowed school. Causes of failure. State of feeling in reference to education.]

Mr. PARRY, Hotel Keeper at Towyn, said:—

That there was no public day-school at Towyn, although it contained 900 inhabitants. The endowed school here was given up about two years since. The school-house was too small for the number of children (about 40). There ought to be a school here for 200 children. There are a great many in the seafaring line in the place who want to learn navigation, and who complain that they have no means of so doing. The roof of the old school-house has now fallen in, in fact it is in ruins.

Mr. Parry then referred to the sources of endowment, which, as full details of them are given in the Further Report of the Commissioners for Inquiry concerning Charities (Merioneth, pp. 573-5) it is unnecessary to give here.

Mr. Parry added, that a difference arose between the Trustees of the Ynisymaengwyn Estate and those of Lady Moyre's Charity, which had deferred steps being taken for the building of a new school house, and the re-opening of the school. Plans of the intended school were made out, and the people of Towyn offered to contribute in money or materials, 100*l.*, if a site were given by the Ynisymaengwyn trustees. Twenty-one of the children, those on the foundation, would have (by Lady Moyre's will) to go to church—but it was agreed that the additional scholars should be free. The Dissenters agreed to support the school on these conditions. There is a strong feeling in favour of giving freedom to all who are not on the foundation. There has been a great advance in this part of the country of late years in establishing schools to which farmers' children can have access, but they are still badly provided for. There is a great difficulty in raising sufficient subscriptions to pay for a good master. The farmers think the master is getting a good deal if he has a salary of 20*l.* a year. If this school with the endowment cannot be procured, there must shortly be a British school established here. In the committee of inhabitants that was formed for promoting the re-establishment of the Towyn school it was proposed that the school managers or committee should consist of the vicar of Towyn, the two churchwardens, and twelve ratepayers. They were selected on the ground that they would be permanently settled here. No definite reply has been had on this subject from the

Trustees of the Ynisymaengwyn estate. There is no place worse provided with the means of education than this. Those who can afford it are obliged to send their children from home, to Liverpool or elsewhere. There is no school-house to be had here. The school which the public would wish to have is a good English school.

Mr. WM. WILLIAMS JONES, Draper, Towyn, in reference to the same subject, said :—

“ There are only two private schools in this town, each for girls and boys. They are both kept by ladies. Their charges are from 4s. to 8s. a quarter. They are too high for the generality of the people of this district to avail themselves of them. The people are poor. The endowed school here has gone down for the last five years. The school-house was suffered to go to decay because of the neglect of the agent of the Ynisymaengwyn estate, and the vicar. When it was proposed to re-establish the school a committee was formed of the towns people. The Dissenters and Church people agreed that 21 children only, in compliance with Lady Moyre's injunction, should be under obligation to attend church on Sunday, but that there should be perfect freedom for all other children, who would have to pay something for their schooling. This arrangement, as well as the re-establishment of the school has not been carried out as the Trustees of the Ynisymaengwyn estate proposed to give land for building a school-house, on condition that they, or a portion of them, were made co-trustees of Lady Moyre's Charity; but as this was refused they would not give the site.”*

The Venerable Archdeacon White, the Rev. D. Edwards, Rector of Ffestiniog, the Rev. J. Phillips, Rector, of Yniscynhaiarn and the Rev. Dr. Edwards, Bala, with whom I had interviews, although they gave no formal evidence, bore testimony in general terms to the educational improvement of this part of the country, and spoke favourably of the existing system of aiding education through the Committee of Council.

EVIDENCE ON THE SOCIAL AND GENERAL EDUCATIONAL CONDITION OF THE POPULATION IN THE SOUTH WALES UNIONS.

HOWEL GWYN, Esq., of Dyffryn.

[School provision in the mining districts in which Mr. Gwyn's property is situated.—Social and moral character of the working population.—Requirements of Committee of Council for school buildings, &c., unsuitable to the condition of the district.—Cost of erecting and supporting public schools in rural districts fall on a few.]

Howel Gwyn, Esq., of Dyffryn, a magistrate of the counties of Glamorgan, Carmarthen, and Brecon, and late M.P. for Falmouth, said :

* For connection of the Ynis-y-maen-gwyn estate with another educational charity at Towyn, (Corbet's), see "Further Report" Charity Commissioners, p. 573.

In this neighbourhood (Dyffryn Clydach) we are peculiarly situated as it respects the school (Bryncoch), as the workmen belonging to the colliery near the school subscribe to the Neath Abbey school, which belongs to the colliery proprietors, and some of the children are sent there. The average attendance at the Bryncoch school is about 80. In another school, which I have erected at Killybebyll, we are similarly situated to Bryncoch, as there are other schools in the neighbourhood. The remarks I make extend only to the manufacturing districts with which I am connected as a landowner. I am also a landowner in the agricultural districts of Carmarthenshire, but I do not know sufficient of the provision for education there to be enabled to speak with much certainty of it. In the Swansea Valley where I have property, they are generally very well off for schools, some of which are on a large scale. As to the character of the population of this district, so far as order goes, we have not much reason to find fault with it, and on the whole they have improved latterly in respect of habits of sobriety. The population connected with the works, are rather improvident in their habits. The outside of their cottages are clean, but within they are often not so neat and orderly as they ought to be. I do not think the parents appreciate the value of education for their children, more particularly in the working districts. Some time since Mrs. Gwyn introduced needlework into the school, for the purpose of enabling the girls to be more useful at home, in making up linen and other clothes for the family. At first some difficulty was found in introducing it, and still more in keeping it up. Even the master did not sufficiently see the necessity of it for girls who had to go out to work in the fields. It has now become a regular feature in the school system, and at present some of the parents appreciate it, at least so far as they see the immediate uses of it to themselves. Young girls in this neighbourhood do not care for domestic life, they prefer working out as they think they are more independent. The great drawback on educational improvement in this district is, that the parents care for nothing so much as the immediate reward of money. As soon therefore as a boy can make 10*d.* or 1*s.* a day, he is removed from the school. The same remark applies to girls who can earn 10*d.* a day by working on the land. This withdrawal of the children does not proceed from the necessities of poverty, as the wages of colliers average not less than 16*s.* a week, and of agricultural labourers about 14*s.* a week. Very few in this neighbourhood have money in the Savings bank, but a great many belong to clubs. From my experience as a magistrate, I am afraid that the mass of the population are not a truth-loving people. This appears from the difficulty in getting the truth out of them as witnesses, particularly if their friends or relations are implicated. As far as servants go, Welsh and English are much the same; but I think on the whole the English of the same grade are more open. I think that the religious instruction, which in this part of the country is principally conducted by the Dissenters, does not sufficiently impress the importance of truth upon those who are the subjects of instruction. Cases of illegitimacy are very frequent. As chairman of this (Neath) Union, I should say it is one of the great evils. I may take the opportunity here of saying that we seldom meet in Petty Sessions in Neath without having cases of drunkenness arising from beer-shops, as well as cases of illegitimacy brought before us. These two are, I am sorry to say, on the increase. I think that in their results on public morals, beer-shops are worse than licensed public-houses. Looking to the existing machinery for education, I am of opinion that it is charge-

able with a tendency to over-educate, that is, to cram too many subjects within too narrow a space of time. I consider many of the regulations of the Committee of Council on Education most inapplicable to the condition of country districts. The specifications from the Committee of Council for the master's house at the Bryncoch school, in consequence of the conditions insisted upon, would make the cost of the building about 260*l.*, whereas a dwelling in every way equal to his requirements may have been raised for 160*l.* Joists of four inches in thickness were required and other unnecessary things, except for a large and expensive house. I altogether condemn the Privy Council system as it respects this and many other features; it is a wasteful expenditure of public money. I have also to remark that in this and other small rural districts, it is impossible to get money enough subscribed to defray the cost of buildings, and keep up the salary of a regular certificated master and mistress, as the farmers rarely contribute, so that the greater part of the expense falls upon one or two individuals who may reside in the parish.

JAMES KENWAY, Esq., Mayor of Neath.

[Past and present provision for education in Neath.—Neath Mechanics Institution; causes of its want of success.—Early withdrawal an obstacle to the progress of education.—Its cause.—Future prospects of education.]

James Kenway, Esq., Mayor of Neath, says:

With the exception of a very elementary school at the Merra there was not up to the last two years any means of popular education in Neath. The state of education among the adult portion of the working population is very low. The moral state of the population has much improved within the last few years. They are orderly and well-behaved, breaches of the peace are few, and drunkenness does not prevail to a great extent. The Sunday schools, I think, have had a great influence in bringing about this improvement. The general wages in Neath and its immediate neighbourhood are paid weekly, and they are not generally speaking subject to much fluctuation. There was a Mechanics Institution in Neath, but it has declined, principally because there is no one competent and having time to superintend it. At one time there was a gentleman well qualified to take its management who attended to it. It succeeded well then. It is in existence now, but it is not appreciated. It is nothing more now than a simple reading room. There are no classes. The active promoters of this institution were Unitarians, and although I think it absurd, I believe this caused a feeling of coolness on the part of a large section of the population against it. At present the means of education in Neath are abundant. The two public schools, British and National, profess to provide education for 1,000 children. One of the unfavourable influences operating upon education, are the temptations offered in wages for parents to withdraw children from school early. They are employed in the tin and iron works, and in collieries. The population are in fact as yet only beginning to appreciate the value of education, and this is attributable to the fact that two good schools have recently been established here. There are few of the population here who cannot afford to pay 2*d.* a week for schooling. It is not from the pressure of poverty that children are taken early from school, but from a desire on the part of the parents

to make something out of them. The population cannot be said to be provident. There are no Savings Banks here, but the people go to Swansea. There are Benefit Building Societies, which get on very well; a large proportion of the members are of the working class order. I think, now that a good education is to be had in the schools that have recently been established here, parents will be induced to leave their children longer in school. The parents of the children who attend the school of which I am one of the committee, the British, take more interest in the education of their children since the introduction of cards for regular attendance. It is surprising how eager the parents are to see their children's cards. I do not think that early withdrawal is to be reached by law, but by gradually producing an impression on the parents' minds. In 8 or 10 years I anticipate for this town great educational improvement; the experiment has so far been encouraging, beyond what I ever anticipated.

THOMAS STEPHENS, Esq., Merthyr Tydfil.

[Agencies affecting the moral condition of the working population; Public houses; Sunday schools; cheap literature. "Grants in aid," preferable to rates, for the promotion of education.—Merthyr Mechanics Institution.]

Thomas Stephens, Esq., High Constable of Merthyr Tydfil, Author of the "Literature of the Kymry," &c., says:

There are in Merthyr four great works and centres of population, Cyfarthfa, Dowlais, Penydarren, and Plymouth. Of Dowlais I can say nothing. In Plymouth works Mr. Hill the proprietor discourages public-houses, and allows none to be kept on his property. As one of the managers of the Merthyr Savings Bank, I can bear testimony to the beneficial effects of this by the fact that a larger proportion of the depositors in the Merthyr Savings Bank come from the Plymouth works than from any other part of the town. Mr. Crawshaw also discourages public-houses, but has not done this for so long a period. At Plymouth and Dowlais no man keeping a public-house is employed in the works, but this rule is not so rigidly enforced at Cyfarthfa. At Penydarren many of the underground agents keep public-houses, and the men feel themselves under a kind of obligation to go there and drink. The Penydarren workmen, more especially the firemen, are inferior in general character to the men employed in the other works. As a body the great mass of the working men are naturally intelligent, but uneducated, so far as secular learning is concerned. The education given to them is principally through the medium of the Sunday school, and is therefore for the most part of a religious character. I consider the Sunday school a great agency in promoting the morality of the working classes. It operates on that large portion of the people who move within the religious circle, which is full one half of the population; but I scarcely think it can be said to extend beyond those limits. Beyond, the masses are influenced by cheap literature, the tendency of which on the whole is, I think, good. They are beneficial as to their subject matter, and by the taste they cultivate for reading, afford a counter power to the temptations of the public-house. The Sunday school I consider to be sufficient as a means of religious instruction. The deficiency on the part of the population in this neighbourhood is of secular knowledge. The great impediment to the spread of education at present is, that children at 10 years

of age can earn money both in the coal and iron works, and hence are taken away from school. I think this arises from greed on the part of the parents, and an inadequate appreciation of the value of education. I am of opinion that the present method of aiding education by Government grants, is a less cumbrous and more certain way of propagating education than if left to a rate which must be dependent on the majority, say of a parish. There is a very large number of public-houses in Merthyr and Dowlais, and I am sorry to add a great deal of drunkenness. But there is an improvement in this respect within the last 10 years; yet not so great as one could expect from the various efforts made to elevate the character of the working classes. There is a large number of clubs in this district, such as Benefit clubs for support in sickness, and Odd Fellows, Alfred, and Ivorite societies. There is a Savings Bank here, but we have no Benefit Building Societies. The Mechanics Institution here has 120 members. There are not many working men among them. The subscription is 1s. 6d. a quarter. There is also a public library here, well supplied with books on science and literature of all descriptions. It is open for three hours every evening, except on Sundays. A very small proportion out of the great population of this place attend it, or avail themselves of its advantages. Classes have been tried in the Mechanics Institution, but have failed.

THOS. STEPHENS.

JAMES ROGERS, Esq., Ystalyfera.

[Occupations of the working population.—Their morals.—Early withdrawal.—Circumstances under which it prevails; consideration of remedies.—Extension of provision of Collieries Prevention Act. Legislative aid for secular education.—Religious knowledge of the population traced to the Sunday school, and not to what is taught of religion in day schools.]

James Rogers, Esq., Surgeon, Ystalyfera, said:—

I have been some time established here as surgeon to a large works in this neighbourhood, the number of persons under my medical care amounting altogether to from 4,000 to 5,000, men, women and children. They are colliers, miners, labourers, blast-furnace men, forge and nail men, and tin-plate workmen. The character of the population generally for sobriety is good; there are exceptions, but they are of classes. The puddlers for example, whose occupation exposes them to great heat, as high as 80° Fahrenheit,* which tends to produce drinking habits, might be pointed out in illustration. They are the skilled labourers of the iron districts. I would observe that the population in

* I have taken the temperature in front of the puddling furnace, where the puddler stands, in the summer of 1848 when it rose to 118° Fah. In one place in the tin mills it rose to 120° Fah., this of course was exceptional; ordinarily the range would be from 80° to 90°. Add to this the fact that the puddler has to undergo powerful muscular exercise during one half his "turn" of 12 hours, and his assistant the other half during the five or six charges of his furnace in that time, and it will not be wondered at that he should, mistakenly, have recourse to beer to sustain his flagging energies, and that the habit of drinking would gradually become established: such is the fact in many cases. Others again having more power of resistance, or being 'obstinate' teetotallers, resist the inclination to drink to excess even of water, and follow out their occupation with far greater regularity, and enjoy much better health than the beer drinkers.

this district are under peculiar circumstances, from the fact that a large portion of the demand for labour in the neighbourhood is of eight or ten years growth, and that they have rapidly collected on this spot from all quarters, Welsh, English, and though exceedingly few, the Irish. They are in a transition state. There is a strong effort perceptible among the working population here in the direction of getting good dwellings and neat furniture. Advantage is also taken of building societies to a very great extent for the purpose of building cottages for themselves. The domestic character is good, tending to comfort. The wages of the colliers as a class are low, and tend to the early employment of the children, they are however generally of provident habits and well conducted, many of them employ their leisure hours in literary pursuits, and are contributors to the Welsh periodicals, and are frequently the successful competitors at the "Eisteddfodau" for poetical compositions and essays. Children are taken into the collieries as near ten years of age as the law permits, the father being anxious to get his son into the works as early as he can, partly from the desire of gain, and partly to train the boy up under his own eye. It is no object of greater skill or efficiency in after life which induces this early employment in collieries. In other departments, the forge and tin works for example, children are employed at even an earlier age; girls come in at from nine to ten years, they are engaged in polishing tin plates. This early withdrawal I think arises from poverty, where there are large families and the father is not a skilled labourer. Boys of 16 and 17 years in tin works often earn more than their fathers where the latter are unskilled labourers. In this place the rise of the forge and tin-plate works has been so rapid that there has been a larger demand than supply of skilled labour, I refer to washmen and tinmen, and hence the system of apprenticing has been adopted from 15 years or upwards. Boys in the tin works at nine or ten years of age will get from 4s. 6d. to 5s. a week. I think that a boy of the labouring classes generally, who is not set to work at from 10 to 14 years of age is very likely to turn out from want of skill and power of application a failure; in after life, indisposition to labour, making him what is here called a "lazy fellow." I would say there should certainly not be any extension of the Act for preventing juvenile labour in collieries, nor should its provisions I think be applied to iron and tin works. I am of opinion from looking at the circumstances under which these (the Ystalyfera) works have grown up, that if a law were to pass to keep children in school till 12 years of age, by preventing them being employed in the works, the cost of production would be so much increased that the producers would not be able to enter into general competition. I know of no case in which the ten years law in collieries has been evaded; but I do know that as soon as children have arrived at ten years they are taken off by their parents to the works, and it requires much looking after on the part of the colliery overseers to prevent their being deceived by the parents. Any extension of a law of this kind would produce a strong feeling as an undue interference with parental rights. Generally speaking I think the people appreciate the value of education. I think this feeling is consistent with early withdrawal, inasmuch as their circumstances require the aid of the child's labour towards furnishing themselves and their families with comforts (and in very many instances with necessities.) I think legislative aid essential to a good secular education of the population; but the teaching institutions of the various denominations of christians are in my opinion quite adequate to providing for their religious instruction. I do not think the religious instruction of

the people is accomplished by the mere reading of the Scriptures or other books of a religious character in a day school. I may state as a matter of fact that the religious knowledge of the principality is entirely due to the agency of the religious denominations through the Sunday school.

JAS. ROGERS.

There is an evening school in connection with the Ystalyfera works, which is tolerably well attended. Evening schools are calculated to do away with the evils resulting from early withdrawal, and they ought to be connected with each works under the management of a separate master.

J. R.

WILLIAM GILBERTSON, Esq., Cwmavon Works.

[Educational condition of the working population.—Inducements to parents to extend the school period of their children.—Prize Association.—Efforts to check early withdrawal have accomplished comparatively little.—Arrangements for promoting education at Cwmavon.—Evening schools.—Reading room.—Privileges to pattern makers.—Clerks in the Cwmavon office educated in the schools.—Extent to which these inducements to educational improvement influence the mass of the working population.]

William Gilbertson, Esq., Cwmavon Works, Managing Director of the Governor and Company of Copper Miners in England, a Magistrate of the county of Glamorgan, one of the committee of the West Glamorgan and Carmarthenshire Prize Association, and who has taken a prominent part in the promotion of education in the district with which he has been connected for many years, says :

The working population up to middle age have pretty generally had the advantage of day school instruction. It is a practice in connection with these works, that when the children evince a disposition to learn, or make good progress in school, and are of good character, they are drafted out and made agents, weighers, clerks, or obtain some other appointment, superior to the condition of the common workmen. I am constrained to say that this system though good so far as it goes, does not induce a general keeping of the boys in school over a lengthened period. In a place like this where work is always to be had and labour is well remunerated, the parents both father and mother are always anxious to take them away to get money. In some of our schools the children are very young and the teachers lament it. I think the Prize Association does good, it induces parents in some cases to let their children stop half a year longer in school in order to get the prize, but it does not influence the working population generally. All these efforts on our part do not reach the mass of the people, but are partial in their influence. My feeling from the experience of 20 years is that little has been done in the way of checking early withdrawal from school ; legislation cannot check it, and any interference often does more harm than good. Looking to the character of the population of this neighbourhood and taking into consideration the nature of their employment, I believe good has been done by the efforts made, especially in drafting the boys from the schools for superior employment. There is a good deal of drunkenness here, but this is not the general character of the population. There are in addition to the

Church large Dissenting chapels, which are well attended; it has been remarked that there are more chapels and churches on the Company's property than public houses. There are evening schools connected with the Cwmavon Works; they are not very largely attended, the girls better than the boys. There are reading rooms connected with the works, and a library containing a collection of useful books; daily and weekly newspapers and other periodicals are taken in the reading room. The class who avail themselves of it are principally the clerks and skilled mechanics, but it is not appreciated by the great mass of the labouring population. The day schools connected with the works do not receive Government aid, nor are they under Government inspection. We do not wish to be interfered with in the arrangements made for these schools, and there are some points which if we accepted aid would be insisted upon, that would be unnecessary here. The schools are visited at our request by the diocesan inspector, and are noticed in his report. (Report here put in, which was highly satisfactory.) The Church catechism is taught in the schools, but it is not compulsory on children whose parents object to their learning it. There is no compulsory attendance of the scholars at church on Sundays. There are five Sunday schools held in the rooms of the day schools. In the pattern making and fitting departments, the apprentices are given one hour on two days in each week from their work to learn drawing on condition that they give a corresponding number of evenings in the week for evening lessons. (The drawings of several of these apprentices were produced, and as specimens of mechanical drawing displayed great merit, as well as care in the execution.) Mr. Gilbertson in continuation observed:—I may state generally that I do not think that the concession of two hours is a loss in a commercial point of view, as we get the advantage of the superior skill and intelligence of the workmen. The same remark applies to the system pursued here in making the appointment of clerks and others from the schools. You will see what kind of men we get in this way by my bringing some of the clerks before you. (Mr. Gilbertson then introduced Mr. Jenkins, who he said could describe the system pursued in admitting the children of workmen into the works, a department with which he was specially entrusted.) Mr. Jenkins in reply to questions addressed by me, said:—I was educated in the Cwmavon Works school. I think that the system of taking boys into the office from the school prompts parents to keep them in school as long as they can; they are otherwise generally taken from school at from eight to ten years of age. The practice here in admitting children into the works is to register them. When a child comes to be registered before he goes to the works, I ascertain by examination, if he can read and write; if not, I report him to Mr. Gilbertson, who admits him or not, as all the circumstances of the child and his family may render desirable, almost always on the condition that the child goes to the night school. In keeping the books in the office it is necessary to be expert and accurate in the use of decimals; this is not gained in the school, but by practice in the office; but there is a foundation laid for this in what is taught in the school. Mr. Jenkin Rees, another clerk, said in answer to questions:—“The system adopted in the works of appointing boys to be overlookers, &c., induces parents to keep the children in school longer in order to bring them up to something besides labour.”—Mr. Gilbertson observed,—“these are only partial cases; I am sorry to say that such is not generally the case. We make a bargain that the children shall attend a night school if unable to read, and admitted early to the works; the parents constantly neglect to enforce this,

and the children do not attend. We are constantly obliged to threaten them with dismissal for this neglect."—With a view further to illustrate the operation of the system of appointments to higher situations of those who remained in school, Mr. Gilbertson very kindly had in and introduced to me the junior clerks; I was much pleased with their general appearance, address, and the language in which they sustained conversation. Of these one had been in school till past 15 years of age, a second till 16 years, a third till 14 years, and a fourth till 14 years.

Mr. Gilbertson in the course of the communication with which he favoured me, stated several facts which showed the moral interest evinced by the Governor and Company of Copper Miners in England, of which he is the managing and resident director, in the social improvement of the vast body of the working population there employed. The individual shareholders of the company had recently erected a church, a spacious and handsome edifice. In addition to this a Bible and Church Missionary Society, and other organisations of a strictly religious character have been established by Mr. Gilbertson, and much has otherwise been done by him towards the improvement of the tastes and domestic habits of the population by the establishment of an annual horticultural show, in which a large proportion of the prizes were awarded to the productions of the cottage gardens of the working men. The organisation and rules of this society, as well as a printed list of the prizes won at the exhibition of the previous year, were placed in my hands by Mr. Gilbertson. In this list the greater portion of the prizes were awarded to working men. There can be no doubt that an institution of this kind must have a most salutary influence on the tastes and morals of the vast population enclosed within this most interesting hive of industry, and of commercial enterprise.

[Character and Habits of the Welsh Colliers.]

Mr. DAVID REES, Mineral Surveyor, Neath, who has had considerable experience among the colliers of the Western District of Glamorganshire, said:—

The colliers in the works with which I am acquainted are, with a few rare exceptions, a sober and well-conducted body of men. They seldom lose a day's work, and, in this respect, are different from the Lancashire and Aberdare district colliers, who very generally keep two or three days a month holidays, which are employed in drinking. There is no such practice in the Swansea and Neath district. They often meet in company for a couple of hours on Saturday, and in coming homeward drink a pint or two together, but not to excess. They almost invariably attend a place of worship on Sunday. The colliers are generally pure Welsh except the Gaffers, or managers, who are mostly north-countrymen, and who occupy this station because they have had more experience in sinking deep shafts and working coal on a larger scale than the generality of Welsh colliers. The Welsh colliers are under great disadvantages for the want of books. In moral habits the Welsh are decidedly superior to the Lancashire colliers. I have been among both. The amusements of the Lancashire collier are very brutal; in Wales, the collier after his work goes home, or to his Meeting-house, or spends a part of his time in setting his garden; and, if he has any amusement, it would be music or dancing. Their cottages are clean—whitewashed, and have generally a garden with potatoes and other useful vegetables, together with a few flowers. The Welsh collier invariably washes himself on his daily return from work—generally before he sits down

to a meal. In past years this was done in the kitchen, in the presence of the wife and often of other females. There is now more delicacy shown on this head, as they have generally a little room or back kitchen to which they retire for this purpose. The Welsh colliers are naturally intelligent and quick; but they want schooling. They make excellent engine-drivers or breaksmen—better than the Lancashire colliers according to their opportunity.

[Causes of deficiency of education.]

The Rev. BENJAMIN THOMAS, Independent Minister, Ystalyfera, said:—

The deficiency of education in these parts arises partly from the deficiency of provision, and partly from want of solicitude in parents for the schooling of their children. I think the country is capable of educating itself. There was a school here about 12 years ago, before the works school was established; the master was paid by the committee of Panteg Chapel. The teacher was from the Brecon Normal College. It was fluctuating before the works school was established, and it was then given up. I have myself kept a school for the last two years. There were about 40 scholars in it. I gave it up, as the parents were unwilling to pay when they were already paying in the works. There is a great increase in the facilities for education now as compared with formerly.

[Government aid.—Constitution of Committees for Works Schools.]

The Rev. REES EVANS, Baptist Minister, Ystalyfera, said:—

The general feeling of the Baptist denomination in South Wales is against government aid, on the ground that Government has nothing to do with religion. Personally, I should have no objection to the grant to a school which teaches simply writing, cyphering, and other secular knowledge. As a Dissenter I object to the compulsory requirement by Government of religious instruction as a condition of the grant. My own children go to the National School. I object to much that is taught there, but I submit to it as the least of two evils. The schools at Ystalyfera are supported by a poundage from the workmen. The workmen say "it is too bad that we should pay to the school and have no voice in what is taught to our children, nor in the choice of the teachers." They do not object to the payment towards the school, but to their having no management of their own money. The general state of education in this neighbourhood has much improved. We find in Sunday schools young persons who can read and spell well, which we could not 15 years ago. It is easier to get good Sunday school teachers. There is an improvement in the parents; they cared less for the education of their children seven or eight years ago than now. I think if in Works schools a mixed committee of masters and men had the management it would be more satisfactory. It would, no doubt, create more interest in the cause of education. From what I know of the workmen, I think they would be competent to aid on such a school committee. I think Sunday schools, with other religious institutions, fully adequate to the religious instruction of the community. I do not think Government aid necessary to the education of the people.

Communication from G. T. CLARK, Esq., Manager of the Dowlais Iron Works.

[Provision for education in the Iron Works of Wales, of recent origin. State of education among, and social condition of the working popu-

lation in Dowlais. Education not a demand, but acquiesced in by the workmen. Early withdrawal—Prize Associations. Employment in works contingent on success in the school. Combination of religious with secular instruction, an imaginary rather than a real difficulty.]

Dowlais House, Merthyr Tydvil,

22nd August 1859.

Sir,

I HAVE already transmitted to you very full statistical information concerning the schools under my control in this district, and to this I now add the enclosed answers to the further paper of questions which accompanied your circular of the 15th of April.* To these answers I will append a few remarks upon the subjects of "popular education" and "elementary instruction" among the large and important class of the inhabitants of the districts who labour with their hands for their daily bread.

These are either such as have been born and bred in this neighbourhood, or such as have migrated hither from North or West Wales and from Ireland. Strangers of this class from England and Scotland are but few in number.

I believe that schools, and I am very sure that efficient schools, are of recent introduction among the Welsh iron works. Those of Dowlais in some form or other, were among the earliest. In other works they have existed from 5 to 10 years, and in some few instances they are even now unknown. It is, therefore, only the rising generation who have, speaking generally, received a tolerable education.

Among the native inhabitants of this district below the age, say of 25, reading, writing, arithmetic, and a moderate acquaintance with the English tongue, are not unusual acquisitions. Above that age they are unusual, and the language ordinarily spoken is Welsh. The younger persons often forget much of what they were imperfectly taught, but the old persons have received little or no education at all.

There is a large annual inflow from rural Wales. These immigrants speak but little English, and are commonly ill taught, but they are, I think, on the whole, superior in moral conduct to those of the risen generation who have grown up in the district. Nevertheless, their presence by strengthening the Welsh element materially counteracts our efforts in education, and tends to maintain the double language, which is the great drawback to intellectual improvement in this border country.

The Irish are almost all Roman Catholics, and they seldom rise to the rank of skilled or highly paid labourers. They are, on the whole, docile and peaceable, and a few send their children to the schools provided for them; but their habits are unthrifty, their wages low, and they live much together in the dirtiest and least healthy parts of the towns. Still, as schools are brought within their reach, they show an increasing desire to profit by them, and that the general character of the body is improving is shown by the improvement in their clubs and benefit societies.

Having regard to the whole of this mixed population, I should say that fully two-thirds can neither read nor write with any sort of ease, and that very few of the women can do "plain work" neatly.

The demand for education in this district does not precede the supply, but is found to follow pretty steadily and closely upon it. The workmen do not establish efficient day schools for themselves, or support such voluntarily, but they submit, in some of the Works, to a

* Mr. Clark answered the Questions issued by the Commissioners. (See Appendix B.)

small deduction from their wages for the school, and when to this their employers add convenient schoolrooms and enough to support trained teachers, there is no indisposition whatever to profit by the means afforded.

That there is no very active demand for education is evident from the fact that the absence of schools has seldom, if ever, formed a topic of complaint against the masters. The men, and those who employ themselves in setting forth their grievances, are in some slight degree awake to the evils of the truck and shop systems, and fully so to many other abuses, real or alleged, but in those Works, now indeed happily but few, in which no schools are provided, this is not urged against the masters, and I have only known one case in which the men expressed an opinion in their favour.

Still, where the means are at hand, the people are very far indeed from being indifferent to education. They willingly pay the weekly penny, form their own opinions upon the system of teaching pursued, and take very great interest in the progress of their children. Some, and the number is increasing, will forego the wages which their children could earn for the sake of keeping them at school until their eleventh or twelfth year.

This increased interest is however due to the stimulus applied by the formation of good schools by the masters, and does not to any great extent originate with the men.

The subjects taught in the schools are reading, writing grammatically and from dictation, and arithmetic, in which latter the Welsh children are great proficient. Geography and history are also taught; and for the girls, needlework. Physical science has been suggested for the boys, and for the girls the practice of cookery; but in my own case, valuable as this knowledge would undoubtedly be, I am not yet satisfied with our proficiency in the three subjects first named and in needlework.

As to religious teaching, the parents would no doubt prefer a school in which their own distinctive tenets were taught, but the absence of this seldom prevents them from sending their children to a decidedly superior school. Of course it will be the duty of any master who expends his workmen's money on education to take care that his schools, as far as practicable, reflect the religious opinions of the parents; and this, in practice, in almost every case, will be fulfilled by the use of the Bible as a text book.

It is almost as difficult and quite as important as drawing the children to school to induce them to attend regularly, and to remain until they reach the highest class, and here it is that capitation grants, prizes, prize schemes, tea drinkings, and similar rewards, are found valuable. A judicious, and above all, an impartial distribution of prizes has a powerful tendency to raise the numbers of a school, and what is of more consequence, of those attending regularly. The prizes should be books, work boxes, drawing instruments, maps and globes, and generally durable and useful articles. They should be given to a certain number, not too many, in each class, and to no child who has not attended a sufficient number of days to earn the capitation grant. There must be no partiality, no regard to the religion or circumstances of the parents, nor to anything but the progress of the child in school, regular attendance being assumed. The prizes should be distributed before the whole school, and as many of the parents as can be induced to attend, and the manager should distribute them himself.

As a rule regular attendance should not be regarded as a merit but as a necessity. In the case of infants, however, a small picture book

given to all who have complied with the capitation attendances will be found to produce a very beneficial effect upon the parents, upon whom depends the attendance of all very young children.

In our local schools sufficient attention has not been paid to the acquirements of the teachers. They have often been employed from motives of pity, or because having a claim upon the manager, he knew not how else to provide for them. They must be regularly trained and certificated; their pay must be sufficient to make them comfortable; they should be controlled by the manager himself and not by his agents or subordinates; and if the school or a class does not improve under their teaching they should be replaced. Liberal treatment and a rigid rule are equally necessary.

The Prize Association in this district has worked extremely well. Its object is to promote regular and prolonged attendance beyond ten years of age. The prizes, in money or books, are publicly given, and are accompanied by a handsome certificate of merit. The sums given range from 5s. up to 3*l.* and 4*l.*, and no doubt produce their effect; but much of the stimulus is due to the public meeting, the holiday, the presence of persons of name and influence in the district, and to the possession of the certificate, which is often framed and hung up by the parents.

It appears to me that the Committee of Council act unwisely and inconsistently in refusing to encourage prize schemes. They are the best result of the system of Government grants, and should be so regarded. They not only, by inducing greater regularity and prolonged attendance, render elementary education more efficient, but they afford the only machinery for trying one school against another, and so publicly testing the education of a district. Success at a prize scheme examination should not only be rewarded in the boys, but be placed by the Government to the credit of their certificated teacher.

No doubt to render this practicable, the examination must be conducted by a Government officer, professionally an examiner, and acquainted with the schools of the district. By this means all suspicion of favouritism will be removed, something of an uniform standard will be maintained, and the progress in each year will be recorded. The Associations do not ask for money; they seek only an official examiner, such as they cannot themselves supply, and that the work of each school should be placed to the account of the master with the Committee of Council.

A far higher stimulus than any school prize is that of a promise that success at school shall be considered as giving a claim to employment in the Works. This it is as much the interest of the master to offer as of the boy to obtain, and it is surprising that it should have been so seldom had recourse to.

Night schools are chiefly valuable to those who have had an education in the day school and wish to keep up their learning. It is seldom practicable to hold them more than three nights weekly during the six winter months.

I entertain a very strong opinion of the advantages of moderate Government assistance if combined with strict inspection. The allowances to teachers, the arrangements for apprenticing pupil-teachers, and the capitation grants, all produce corresponding exertions in the school and district which could scarcely, in the present state of our work people, be called forth by any other means. As to inspection, there may be particular schools in which some active and intelligent manager may give up his time to a school and render inspection needless, but such cases are rare. I have never seen a school which was not the

better for inspection, and I have never met with a really good teacher who was not strongly in favour of it. So far as my experience goes, and it is not inconsiderable, of the Government machinery, it is well devised and judiciously worked. The only fault I have to find is that in certain districts there are too few inspectors for the work to be performed.

Much has been said of the impracticability of combining religious with secular instruction in a school intended for the people at large. I believe this difficulty to be rather imaginary than real, or where it exists to be due to the over-zeal or want of honesty of the manager or master. Of course Roman Catholics will not attend a Protestant school, but there are very few Protestants, whether Churchmen or Dissenters, who would object to the use of the Bible as a school book, or to the teaching of the leading precepts of the Gospel. If the school be avowedly a Church school, and a good one, Dissenters will often use it, taking their children to their own home or to the Chapel school on the Sunday, but if the school be professedly intended for all, and as regards religion be simply a Bible school, the manager and teachers should consider themselves bound in common honesty to exercise no undue influence over the peculiar tenets of the children. Neglect of this obvious duty is immediately observed, and gives, as it ought to do, great offence. This dishonesty, for it deserves no better name, I have myself witnessed. I believe it to be in a greater or less degree not uncommon, even in high quarters, and I have always found it to destroy the efficiency of a school.

In the iron districts of Glamorgan and Monmouth, each Parliamentary election elicits a general and most natural cry for an extension of political power. Those who advocate this extension, no less than those who are alarmed at it, ought equally to promote education. That the working classes ought to possess further political power few will venture to deny, that they will obtain it is believed by all; but it is to education, and to education alone, that we must look to render these classes capable of so employing their power as to elevate instead of destroying our common country.

I remain, &c.

GEO. T. CLARK.

J. Jenkins, Esq., &c., &c.

[The Rev. Thos. Walters, Rector of Ystradgunlais, and the Rev. J. Griffiths, Rector of Neath, gave evidence, the MS. copies of which, forwarded at their request to them for revision, had not been returned up to the time of this Report being sent to press. Mr. Walters describes the moral and educational condition of his neighbourhood as being "on the whole good; the chief deviations from morality being drunkenness, common assaults thence resulting, and bastardy. There is a higher order of intelligence than there was twelve years ago—the schools (though much has been done for education) not so efficient as they ought to be, for want of funds." The principal points in Mr. Griffiths' evidence are embodied in his replies to the questions in Appendix B.; but in addition he suggests the establishment of district schools in large and poor agricultural parishes, and the union of several small parishes into districts for schools within an accessible distance.]

APPENDIX B.

[Appendix B. contains the replies obtained to a series of questions, issued by the Commissioners, which are given below. In accordance with my instructions, I distributed printed copies of these questions to magistrates, gentlemen, ministers of religion, and others—wherever I thought persons had opportunities of obtaining the experience which would enable them to answer them. Of the whole number of copies distributed, seventy-six, I received replies only from the eight gentlemen whose communications are given below. To the causes of this disproportion in the number of returns, I have alluded elsewhere. I refer, also, in connection with the subject, to a note appended by Mr. Marryat to his replies, p. 615.—With a view to bringing together the opinions, on the same class of questions, of the several gentlemen who have furnished me with information, I have arranged each gentleman's answers so as immediately to follow the series of questions to which they relate. The questions and answers are indicated by corresponding numbers; and where a question divides itself into two or more members, they and the replies to them, are, where required, denoted by corresponding numbers, thus (1), (2), &c.]

The Education Commissioners have been commanded by Her Majesty to inquire into the state of Popular Education in England, and to consider and report what measures, if any, are required for the extension of sound and cheap elementary instruction to all classes of the people.

By "Popular Education" the Commissioners understand the education of the families of day labourers, mechanics, and the poorer classes of farmers and shopkeepers.

By "Elementary Instruction," they understand instruction in which reading, writing, and arithmetic for boys, with the addition of plain work for girls, form the staple.

You are requested to answer the following questions bearing upon their inquiry:—

(1) What have been your opportunities of acquiring experience respecting popular education and elementary instruction? (2) To what districts does your experience apply?

SUPPLY and DEMAND of EDUCATION.

1. (1) Generally speaking, have the poor people in the district with which you are acquainted received elementary instruction? (2) If they have, have they forgotten, or do they still remember what they were taught?

2. If they have not received elementary instruction, does this arise from a failure in the supply or in the demand for education?

3. (1) If from a failure in the supply, are there too few schools or too few teachers? (2) State any facts within your own knowledge in illustration of the want of which you complain.

4. (1) If from a failure in the demand, is the cause of that failure a want of will or a want of power on the part of the parents to procure education for their children? (2) and is it usually a total failure in not sending children to school at all, or a partial one in not keeping them there long enough?

5. If it is want of will what is the cause of that want?

6. (1) Do parents neglect to educate their children on the ground that

the education within their reach is not adapted to their wants? (2) and if so, are they right or wrong in that opinion, and what is the proof that they are right or wrong?

7. Do they neglect it on the ground of the incompetence of the teacher?

8. Do they neglect it on the ground of difference in religious belief from the managers of schools within their reach?

9. Do they neglect it on the ground that they cannot afford to forego wages earned by their children?

10. (1) If unwillingness to lose wages is the cause, what is the value of the labour of children under 15 in the district with which you are acquainted? (2) Are there any and what special circumstances in the relations between employers and labourers which affect the attendance of children at school? (3) Does female labour prevail, and does this affect the education of girls?

11. How is the unwillingness of parents to send their children to school affected—

(a) By prizes or certificates for attendance?

(b) By the quality of the instruction given?

(c) By the character of the school and schoolmaster?

(d) By the particular systems of school management?

(e) By the demand of school pence?

(f) By instruction given gratuitously?

(g) By experience of the advantages of education in obtaining employment, or otherwise?

12. If parents are unable to send their children to school, what prevents them? If poverty prevents them, how does it operate? What is the evidence that they are really unable, and not merely indifferent on the subject?

13. Is the supply of schools and teachers proportioned to the want of them, or are there too few in some, and what neighbourhoods, and too many in others; or how otherwise.

Answers to the foregoing Questions.

JOSEPH MARRYAT, Esq., Ynisedwyn Ironworks, Ystradgynlais,
Breconshire.

As resident proprietor for 10 years at the Ynisedwyn Iron Works, in the parish of Ystradgynlais, South Wales, where 1,200 to 1,500 miners, colliers, and others are employed, a school being attached to the works, to which the workmen subscribe a portion out of their wages. There are also other schools in the parish, chiefly Welsh.

1. The older people have not received elementary education, or have entirely forgotten it, being sadly ignorant. All Welsh.

2. No schools formerly in this district.

3. Schools have only been established within 16 years, and are not valued by the parents, and of course badly attended. The teachers are as good as are required.

4. English is a new language to the children, and never heard except in the school. Their progress is slow, and they are taken away for any trifling cause, and never remain long enough to be grounded in any one branch of education, or even in the English language.

5. There are of course exceptions, where the child is quick, and masters the English language; he then learns well, and makes good progress.

6. No reason is given for the neglect of education by the parents but that their children can earn money without it.

7. The master is very competent, and liked by the children, knowing both English and Welsh.

8. Not on this ground.

9. The wages which can be earned by the children are the inducement for the parents keeping their children from school.

10. Children can earn, at an early age, by helping their parents at piece work, 4s. per week. This system is discouraged by the manager, but cannot be prevented, as it would be considered as an interference between parent and child. Boys are not entered till 15 years of age, and no girls are employed in the Works but they are taken from the school to assist their parents in household duties.

11. (a) Has no effect here.

(b) Never objected to.

(c) Are generally liked and respected.

(d) Never inquired into by the parents.

(e) Never required.

(f) None given excepting at school.

(g) Boys are not employed in the Works, unless they have learnt English, and to read and write. This has a good effect.

12. Ignorance and indisposition prevent them, not poverty, as they pay nothing. They are not unable, but indifferent.

13. The supply is quite equal to the demand. None are well attended.

GEO. T. CLARK, Esq., Dowlais Iron Works, Merthyr Tydfil,
a Magistrate of the county of Glamorgan.

(1) Very various. (2) More recently the manufacturing districts of South Wales.

1. (1) Above, say 25 years, no; below that age, yes, more or less imperfect. (2) Something is done by Night schools to keep up knowledge.

2. From failure in the supply. Ignorant people seldom or ever demand education.

3. Too few schools, and teachers not regularly trained. Benevolent people do much mischief in excluding trained teachers, and substituting their own voluntary, and often irregular, efforts.

4. There is no want of power. All can pay 1d. weekly. There is much want of will, both in sending children at all, in making them attend regularly, and in keeping them long enough.

5. Ignorance in the parents, and consequent want of value for education for their children.

6. Sometimes this is alleged, but very seldom with truth, in these districts.

7. Yes; and often, in uninspected schools, with great reason.

8. Moderate difference in religious belief seldom keeps children away from a really good school.

9. Seldom, when the child is under 10 years; very generally afterwards.

10. (1) Five shillings to ten shillings a week. Employment under 10 years is discouraged. (3) It does prevail, and has a very bad effect on the girls.

11. (a) These, if judiciously and impartially given, produce a great effect.

- (b) No doubt this is considered.
- (c) Very much ; but the parents often judge amiss of the teacher's merits.
- (d) Not much here.
- (e) Not much here.
- (f) Seldom valued.
- (g) Very much. At Dowlais the school has recently been made the passport to employment.

12. Indifference to education, and that only.

13. On the whole, good schools are much too few for the wants of the district, and the masters or employers, as a body, take very little interest in education.

M. MOGGRIDGE, Esq., Swansea, a Magistrate of the county of Glamorgan.

(1) Subscribing to many schools, and acting on school committees for more than 20 years. (2) Swansea and the West of Glamorgan.

1. (1) Yes, to a considerable extent, as regards reading and arithmetic. (2) They remember.

2. More would have benefited had the supply been greater ; but many parents are totally indifferent.

3. (1) Both. In some of the country parishes children go far for schooling. (2) In the borough of Swansea the children of the above classes, who are in day schools, do not, I believe, exceed $\frac{1}{5}$ of the entire population.

4. Both.

5. Children earn good wages at an early age.

6. (1) Not generally. (2) Some think the education tendered above the wants of their station.

7. No.

8. No.

9. Yes ; *i.e.*, children leave school too soon.

10. (1) From 3s. to 10s. weekly. (2) No. (3) Yes ; they go very young into service as nurses, &c.

11. (a) They excite emulation.

(b) See 6.

(c) Schools improve in numbers with better masters ; and this improvement is very marked when under the inspection system.

(d) No.

(e) Effect good, except with the very poor, whom we take in as free pupils.

(f) Is not so much prized.

(g) Yes.

12. Poverty in some instances ; indifference in many more.

13. Too few schools, especially in the country parishes.

SAMUEL HOLLAND, Esq., Plas-y-Penrhyn, J. P., Merionethshire.

To the district comprised in the Festiniog Union, in which I have resided for more than 30 years, and have paid attention to the state of education in it.

1. Since schools were established they have received an education, and generally they retain what they learn, and seem desirous of improving themselves more.

2. From both, but more from failure in the supply.

3. (1) Both; but more particularly for want of more schools. (2) Llanfair and parts of Llanfihangel-y-Traethau and Llan-frothen (in Merionethshire) and Penmorfa and Llanfihangel-y-Pennant (in Carnarvonshire).

4. (1) Want of will and power are both causes, but lessening as schools become established. (2) The children are seldom left in school long enough.

5. Ignorance.

6. No.

7. No.

8. Very seldom, or indeed scarcely ever.

9. Seldom. Generally plead their own poverty.

10. (1) Children's earnings under 15 years of age vary, according to their employment, from 6d. to 1s. a day. (2, 3) No special circumstances, and no female labour, except as domestic servants.

11. All these circumstances may operate a little. Parents who have been educated are very desirous of having their children so too. Those who have not, begin to see the value of education as schools become established.

12. Answered above.

13. Answered before.

JOSHUA RICHARDSON, Esq., C. E., Neath.

(1) I was one of the promoters of the establishment of British Schools at Neath, and have been one of the managers and secretaries of these schools for five years, having previously given much attention to the subject of educating the children of the poor. (2) South Wales, but especially Neath and its neighbourhood.

1. The adult population of the industrial class are generally totally uneducated, and until recently the majority of the children were also uneducated.

2. From a failure in the supply.

3. As regards Neath, there were too few schools. In 1854 the whole school accommodation at Neath for the poor was one schoolhouse, capable of containing 200 children, which was on an old and most inefficient system. British and National Schools have been since established, and were opened last year. They can accommodate 1,000 children, and with the old school are attended by from 800 to 900 children. Great destitution of the means of education prevails in villages.

4. The parents generally gladly avail themselves of the means offered for the education of their children, and in this district the school pence are readily and cheerfully paid.

6. (1) There are no such objections made at Neath. (2) The intemperate habits of the parents is the chief cause now of the neglect of education.

7. No.

8. No. We have the children of Church of England men and of Jews, as well as of all the Dissenting denominations, in our British Schools.

9. No; except in cases mentioned in No. 6.

10. (1) In collieries children from 10 to 15 years of age may earn from 8*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per day. (2) No. (3) No.

11 (a) We have devoted the capitation grant to prizes for regular attendance, advancement in learning, and good conduct, with the most beneficial results.

(b) The quality of the instruction given greatly influences the parents.

(c, d) The same may be said of the character of the teachers, particularly of that of the mistress, as well as of the system of management.

(e) We do not find this an obstacle.

(f) We do not give instruction gratuitously. In cases of great poverty we reduce the charge from 2*d.* to $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per week, which, we find, induces better attendance.

(g) This doubtless operates beneficially. Two of our boys were engaged last week as clerks in the telegraph office, and another was engaged in the railway office, which is a great advancement of their social positions.

12. Wages are good here, and sober persons are not in poverty, except in sickness. The widows are the most destitute, and we take their children at $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per week. Strict inquiry is made into such cases by one of the committee.

13. In Neath the supply of schools and teachers is at present rather above the demand, but the town is rapidly increasing in the number of houses and in population.

The Rev. JOHN GRIFFITHS, Rector of Neath, Glamorganshire.

(1) A residence of many years in manufacturing districts. (2) My answers have reference chiefly to Neath and its neighbourhood.

1. Most of them have received elementary instruction, but, generally speaking, it has been of an inferior character, such as might easily be forgotten, which in many instances is the case. There are, however, but very few who cannot read.

2. The deficiency has been occasioned by a contracted supply of means of education, especially in the country districts, from which a large portion of the working classes migrate to the manufacturing towns.

3. The answers above given apply to the adult population. The educational wants of the towns at present are well supplied, and in the country districts schools are very generally provided.

4. (1) The failure is that of demand; its cause a want of will rather than of power. (2) In very few instances is there a total failure; the work is chiefly hindered by the irregular and short attendance of the children.

5. One cause is the inferior education of the parent, who consequently places little value on the education of the child. Another cause is the too general absence of provident habits amongst the working classes. To assist in supporting the family, children are employed at an early age. Another very great cause, and certainly the greatest, in fact the great obstacle in the way of education,—the moral, social, and religious good of the people,—is the drinking habits and customs of the working classes. This habit reigns amongst them to a fearful extent, especially in manufacturing towns. It absorbs a large proportion of their wages. The consequence is, wretchedness at home, and a neglect of all moral and social improvement.

6. I have met with few such cases.

7. Very seldom.

8. I do not think so. Some children of churchmen attend the British schools in this place, while a large number of children whose parents are dissenters attend the National Schools.

9. This is one and the chief reason why the education of the child is neglected by an improvident parent.

10. (1) The value depends on the nature of the employment. Many children are here employed under ground, where the parents, who are colliers and miners, work. The value varies from four to ten shillings per week. (3) If by labour out-door work is to be understood, very little exists in this parish. Girls are kept at home at an early age to assist in the work of the house, and to mind the younger children.

12. Poverty is in this town relieved by supplying gratuitous instruction. Intimate acquaintance with the people enables me to state that indifference is the chief hindrance in the way of the education of the rising generation.

13. In large places the supply is well nigh proportioned to the wants. I know of no places where they are too numerous; of many places where they are insufficient. As the value of education becomes more extensively recognised in all places increased accommodation will be required.

THE REV. THOMAS PRICE, Baptist Minister, Aberdare,
Glamorganshire.

(1) I have for the last thirteen years taken an active part in the promotion of education among the working class of this district. (2) I live in the parish of Aberdare, containing about 25,000 inhabitants, being an iron and coal mining district.

1. (1) Only partially. (2) Some have remembered and improved upon what they learned when young; others have entirely forgotten it.

2. From both. Had there been schools I believe a demand to a certain extent would have been created.

3. There are "too few" elementary schools available to the poorer classes. I have known children coming three miles to our British School.

4. (1) As a general rule, more from a want of will than the want of means, except where families are large. (2) Most children go to school, but are not kept there long enough.

5. Not putting a proper value upon education; but there is a manifest improvement in this respect, as education is more valued than of late years.

6. I think not.

7. When the parents have no faith in the competence of the teacher, they become more careless about sending their children.

8. Not to any great extent in this district, but is partially so.

9. To a large extent. This is the chief cause of removing children from school at an early age.

10. (1) From 2s. 6d. to 10s. per week. (2) Boys at 10 years old readily get employed in the coal and iron works. (3) Yes, to a certain extent, and this materially affects the education of girls.

11. (a) It induces them to leave the children in the school for a longer period.

- (b) This has a good effect upon the parents.
 - (c) Very much depends upon this.
 - (d) The parents generally leave this to the managers. I have never heard them complain.
 - (e) No objection raised to the payment of pence.
 - (f) They have no faith in this.
 - (g) This has much influence upon parents to induce them to leave their children longer at school.
12. In some cases poverty may stand in the way, but generally the want of appreciating the value of education to their children.
13. In this parish we have many public and private schools, but still I think they are too few to meet the requirements of the population of the district. They are also fairly distributed, though there are large clusters of houses at a great distance from any of them.

PENDARVES VIVIAN, Esq., Margam Copper Works, Taibach.

- 1. Most of the workmen in this district have received elementary education, and retain the same.
- 6. (1) No.
- 7. No.
- 8. No.
- 9. No.
- 10. (1) A boy from 12 to 15 years of age earns about 5s. per week.
- (3) No.
- 11 (a). Certificates for attendance.
- 12. They are not affected by poverty.

GOVERNMENT AND FINANCE OF SCHOOLS.

- 1. Are you acquainted with the working of any, and what, systems of central aid and inspection, or of inspection alone?
- 2. (1) What in your opinion is the result of the variety of systems for these purposes now in operation? (2) Do they stimulate, or do they interfere with each other?
- 3. Does the prospect of assistance from the Committee of Council, or from a central society, or either, and which of them, tend to increase or to diminish local subscriptions and exertions?
- 4. Does the system of Government or other central inspection affect the efficiency of schools inspected, and how?
- 5. Do any and which of the terms upon which the Government grant is made affect in practice the independent management of the schools assisted?
- 6. Have private-adventure schools declined or otherwise since the establishment of the Government system of grants?
- 7. It has been said that the terms of the Government grant, and particularly those which relate to the capitation grant, are such that it is useless to the promoters of schools in poor places. Is this so in your opinion, and on what facts is your opinion founded?
- 8. (1) What is generally speaking the financial condition of the schools with which you are acquainted? Are they self-supporting, in debt, or

supported by subscriptions? (2) Where the resident population is principally poor, do non-resident proprietors usually subscribe? If not, who does? (3) How does the payment of school fees operate? Is it popular with parents? (4) Does it deprive those who are very poor of the use of the schools, and bring in children of a richer class?

Answers to the foregoing Questions.

JOSEPH MARRYAT, Esq.

1. Inspection will always do good, though the schools here do not come up to the standard required by the inspector.

2. Education in Wales must be considered as an exceptionable system, and not to be put in comparison with that in England.

3. Exertions are being generally made to educate the people, irrespective of Government grants, which are not to be obtained but upon conditions involving useless expenses, such as, among others, boarded floors, concrete being generally used as better adapted for use in a coal district.

4. The standard of education is so low as scarcely to require Government inspectors.

5. Inapplicable here.

6. Not as far as can be ascertained.

7. Useless, here, for reasons above stated.

8. The schools are supported by workmen's subscriptions and liberal donations from the gentry, and generally are not in debt.

GEO. T. CLARK, Esq.

1. Central aid, as administered by the Committee of Privy Council, produces an immense activity elsewhere, and does much good; but inspection, such as I have found it in the Government inspectors, is absolutely essential to the success of our schools.

2. They rather interfere.

3. To increase powerfully.

4. Adds wonderfully to their efficiency; provides an impartial examination; affords a means of comparison with other schools; gives the teachers an appeal from a prejudiced manager or committee.

5. I only work the Privy Council scheme of secular inspection, and I feel no check on my independence.

6. I cannot say, but these are usually very poor affairs indeed.

7. I believe this to be in some degree the case, but I have no personal experience in the matter.

8. (1) In the iron works the masters arbitrarily withhold a small part of the men's wages for the schools. (3) Non-resident proprietors give very little indeed, and consequently in such cases there is no school unless the clergyman be more than usually active. (4) The district must be poor indeed from which the usual school fee excludes. A moderate infusion of the children of the richer classes does good. It raises the character of the school, and makes the manager and master more attentive.

M. MOGGRIDGE, Esq.

1. Yes ; aid and inspection.
2. (1) Al. are doing more or less good. (2) Neither.
3. To increase, as regards assistance from Committee of Council.
4. Yes, greatly, and in every respect advantageously.
5. Not in schools under the British and Foreign system.
6. Have rather increased.
7. Yes, because those schools cannot come up to the minimum of the Government requirements.
8. (1) Where prudently managed in boys' schools, the two ends can be made to meet, but hardly so with girls. This is on the assumption that, in addition to the Government grants, &c., and the school pence, there is a considerable subscription, *very little* of which comes from non-residents, but almost entirely from those who also support the other charities of the neighbourhood, while some who are among the richest subscribe to none.

SAMUEL HOLLAND, Esq.

1. Not.
2. Inspection always does good.
3. (1) All tends to increase.
4. It does ; stimulates both masters and children to work and try to improve themselves.
5. Not.
6. Not in this district.
7. Certainly not. The grants are great aids to the promoters.
8. (1) *Very few* are self-supporting. All or nearly so depend upon subscriptions. (2) Non-resident proprietors seldom or ever subscribe ; they plead having their own districts to attend to. (4) There are no *rich* class in this district to avail themselves of the schools. The school fees are so moderate, none object to them. The children of all who are in receipt of parochial relief are admitted, and paid for by their respective parishes.

JOSHUA RICHARDSON, Esq., C.E.

1. Yes ; with that of the Committee of Privy Council on Education and of the British and Foreign School Society.
2. I think they operate most beneficially ; nor does the one interfere with the other.
3. The assistance of the Committee of Council most materially tended to stimulate our local energies and increase our subscriptions. Without the prospect of such assistance we should never have attempted to build our large houses or be able to support the schools.
4. It has a most beneficial tendency in every respect. It stimulates the committee and teachers to persevering exertion, and keeps alive a watchful interest in the management of the schools and in the children's progress and conduct. Both the children and their parents highly estimate the inspector's visits.
5. I do not find that they do in the slightest degree.
6. With the exception of dame schools and others of a low description, I think they have not.

7. Neath may be considered as comparatively a poor town, and I am sure the Government grants have been of the most essential service. The capitation grant is also most useful as it enables us to give prizes, which without it we could not afford to give.

8. (1) I can only speak with certainty of our own schools. They are not self-supporting, and are about 50*l.* in debt, but which will be all paid on the receipt of a year and a half's annual subscriptions due in April next, and which amounts to from 40*l.* to 50*l.* per year. (2) No non-resident proprietor subscribes, but the banker, merchants, and tradesmen, with others of the middle class. (3) The payment of school fees induces good attendance. The schools are generally very popular with the parents, who do not object to the payment. The national school charges only 1*d.*, but we do not find that this is of prejudice to us. In no instance have we refused admittance to a poor child, and I do not think such will be ever excluded by the payment of a moderate fee being insisted on.

The Rev. JOHN GRIFFITHS.

1. Diocesan Board.

2. When judiciously managed they stimulate rather than interfere with each other.

3. It tends to increase.

4. Favourably.

5. I have not found the terms on which the Government aid is made, interfere with the independent management of the schools.

6. Very much declined.

7. The terms are difficult to be met in places where the population is small and scattered, and where there is an absence of the more educated classes.

8. (1) Few are self-supporting ; most of them work with circumscribed means, and all get support from subscriptions. (2) There is a growing willingness on the part of non-resident proprietors to subscribe. (3) School fees operate favourably ; they are not unpopular with parents. (4) The scale of fees generally adopted enables the very poor as well as children of a richer class to attend.

The Rev. THOS. PRICE.

1. I have had more to do with the inspection alone.

2. They rather stimulate each other.

3. Assistance from the Committee of Council has with us tended to increase local subscriptions and exertions.

4. Yes, very much, and without exception to the benefit of the schools.

5. It does not in any way, as far as my experience goes. The management is as independent as we could wish.

6. They have not declined in this neighbourhood ; but I should state that the population here increases very fast indeed.

7. I do not see how this can be. My opinion is that it does much good, and is of great use.

8. (1) The schools in this neighbourhood are not self-supporting, but are assisted by subscriptions. (2) Proprietors generally subscribe, as also a number of the middle classes who take an interest in popular

education. (3) I have not heard parents complain of the school fees, and I do not think they act as a bar against the poorer children, and admit the children of the richer classes.

PENDARVES VIVIAN, Esq.

8. The schools attached to these Works are self-supporting.

EFFICIENCY OF SCHOOLS AND SCHOOLMASTERS.

1. What is your experience as to the comparative efficiency of—
 - (a) Public and private schools ?
 - (b) Endowed and unendowed schools ?
 - (c) Inspected and uninspected schools ?
 2. What is your experience as to (a) evening schools, (b) industrial schools, (c) half-time systems, as means of keeping up what has been learned at ordinary schools, or prolonging attendance there ?
 3. (1) What is your experience as to the masters and mistresses trained at normal schools ? (2) Has their training adapted them, or has it failed to adapt them in any, and what, particulars, for their duties ; and especially for the more elementary branches of education, particularly reading ? (3) Do they show a tendency to be dissatisfied with their position, and on what grounds ?
 4. Does the system adopted by the Committee of Council in reference to teachers trained at normal schools make it difficult to obtain competent teachers for uninspected schools ?
 5. (1) What is your experience of the working of the system of pupil-teachers ? (2) Do the claims of the scholars and pupil-teachers on the master clash with each other ; and if so, which are usually neglected ? (3) Where there are no pupil-teachers how is teaching conducted ? and what is the comparative efficiency of schools at which they are and are not found ?
 6. Is there any disproportion between the supply and demand of schoolmistresses, and to what cause is it to be attributed ?
 7. What is your experience as to the efficiency of masters of endowed schools, and as to the purity of their appointments ?
 8. What is your experience as to the efficiency of masters of private adventure schools, and as to the nature of their previous occupations ?
 9. What is your opinion of the subject-matter of education in various classes of schools, in the district with which you are acquainted, in respect of—
 - (a) Its tendency to develop the mental powers ?
 - (b) Its tendency to supply specific information of practical value ?
 - (c) Its tendency to fit the pupil for his future course of life ?
 10. Is it usual for parents to send their children to schools in connexion with other religious persuasions than their own ? and if so, upon what terms as to special provision for their religious instruction or attendance upon religious worship, and are such terms usually enforced in practice ?
-

Answers to the foregoing Questions.

JOSEPH MARRYAT, Esq.

1. (a) Public schools are best conducted, but private are required also.
 - (b) No experience.
 - (c) Inspection is very important, but not by *high class* inspectors.
2. All very useful, but not attended.
3. Highly trained masters would be thrown away here, and become dissatisfied, and not knowing the Welsh language would be incompetent to teach.
4. It does.
5. Not sufficiently advanced for pupil-teachers.
6. Not here.
7. No experience.
8. No experience.
9. There can be no doubt that the development of the mental powers and the acquisition of information from education fit the pupil for moving in a higher sphere of life.
10. Little interest is taken by the parents on this subject.

GEO. T. CLARK, Esq.

1. I prefer public to private, and as a rule private to endowed schools. In a general way, the small endowments are an evil. I prefer inspected schools.

2. (a) These certainly do enable industrious workmen who have passed through a day school to keep up their learning; they do little for those who have had no previous education.

3. On the whole the training is good; in some especially so. I hear complaints in Wales that the schoolmaster knows more than the curate, and is aware of it; but however this may be, I have found the teachers as a body very well conducted.

4. I never find any serious difficulty.

5. (1) In its favour. (2) Not where the manager does his duty.

6. A good mistress, like any other good servant, is difficult to find; and the higher their qualifications, having due regard to good looks, the more likely are they to marry early and well.

7. They are often inefficient, and their appointment is usually a job.

8. They are seldom trained, and often men who have failed in trade.

9. (b) I doubt the practicability of supplying much specific information under 10 years of age. The great thing is to teach the child to read, write, and cypher, and with these a little geography and history.

10. I know little of sectarian schools. If the Bible be used as a text book in the school, and the leading doctrines and precepts of Christianity be taught in a school, in other respects efficient, very few parents will object to send their children to it. The distinctive doctrines may be added at home or at the Sunday school.

M. MOGGRIDGE, Esq.

1. (a) Public are the best, having the great advantage of inspection.
 - (b) We have no endowed.
 - (c) See (a).

2. (a) Much *good done* and *evil prevented*.
 (b) Have none. I hope to see a District Industrial School.
 (c) Have none.
3. (1) Favourable. Some think themselves above their position.
4. Yes.
5. (1) To its decided advantage. (2) No. (3) By monitors. (4) The system of pupil-teachers is by far the most efficient.
6. Yes, chiefly from the pupil-teachers generally marrying, being cultivated so much above their class, and partly from really efficient women feeling diffident about passing the required examination.
7. None.
8. Can give no opinion.
9. (a) Good.
 (b) (c) Same ; but the "future course of life" does not require so high a standard as that adopted by the Committee of Council.
10. Yes. Considerable indifference is manifested, *except it be at public meetings*.

SAMUEL HOLLAND, Esq.

1. There are no endowed ones here. All the others are generally good.
2. Evening and industrial schools do good where established during the winter months. Would scarcely be attended in summer.
3. (1) Favourable. The trained ones are decidedly the best, and their training has adapted them to their duties. (3) They appear to be generally satisfied with their position.
4. Not very ; a little so.
5. (1) Favourable. (2) They do not clash. (3) Where no pupil-teacher, by monitors. Where pupil-teachers, much more efficient.
6. There is rather a want of good trained schoolmistresses. Hitherto demand.
7. No endowed schools here.
8. Favourable here.
9. Very good.
10. Yes. No terms are made or thought of ; all is left to the master.

JOSHUA RICHARDSON, Esq., C.E.

1. (a) When public schools are efficiently conducted, I think they are far superior to private ones for the poor ; the latter are generally deficient in pecuniary means to obtain teaching talent, and the requisite books, maps, &c.
 (b) As possessing more means, the endowed schools are to be preferred, if efficiently conducted.
 (c) As far as my experience goes, the inspected schools are in every respect better than the uninspected.
2. (a) My experience as to evening and Sunday adult schools is discouraging, as all I have been connected with failed as soon as the novelty was extinct.
 (b, c) I have had no experience in either of these.
3. I think the normal school training invaluable. In our schools, as well as in others of the neighbourhood, the masters and mistresses so trained have given very great satisfaction, and are admirably adapted

for teaching the elementary branches, to which their labours are chiefly directed. They appear to be well satisfied with their position and prospects.

4. When our school was uninspected we found no difficulty.

5. I think it works well; nor do I find that the instruction of the pupil-teachers at all interferes with the master and mistress's duties to the scholars. Where there are no pupil-teachers, their position is occupied by monitors, who are necessarily less efficient. Large schools cannot, in my opinion, be well conducted without pupil or assistant teachers, and few schools can afford to pay for the latter. In very large schools both may be needed.

6. In this district, uncertificated mistresses exceed the demand, which I think arises from the unwillingness of females to undergo the requisite examination.

7. I have had nothing to do with endowed schools.

8. They are generally unfit for their occupation, and in this and adjoining districts are frequently disabled colliers and other workmen. I speak of schools for the poor, many of which I have visited, but have never seen a good and really efficient one.

9. (a) In the Government schools is good. (b) Ditto. (c) Ditto.

10. Yes (vide p. 8., Supply and Demand of Education.) Upon the terms of our third rule, viz. :—“That the Holy Scriptures in the authorised version shall be read by the scholars daily. That no formulary peculiar to any religious denomination shall be introduced or taught; and that the children attending the schools of this society shall attend such places of worship and Sabbath schools as their parents or guardians may prefer.” This rule has been strictly enforced, and with very satisfactory results.

The Rev. JOHN GRIFFITHS.

1. (a) My experience convinces me of the great superiority of public over private schools.

(b) I have but slight acquaintance with the comparative efficiency of endowed and unendowed schools.

(c) I am strongly in favour of inspected schools.

2. (a) That they are most valuable and truly popular; they signally answer the purpose of their establishment, being the means of keeping up what has been learned, and promoting the morality of young men and women. (b) I have had no experience in industrial schools or half-time systems.

3. The training at normal schools gives great efficiency to the teachers. When there has been a want of power to perform their duties, it has arisen more from individual incompetency than from bad training. This is less applicable to mistresses than to masters. The training of the former, so as to be made practical, ought to be improved.

4. It does.

5. (1) My experience is strongly in favour of the system of pupil-teachers. (2) In every well-managed school there need be no clashing, for pupil-teachers have no direct instruction during school hours. (3) Where there are no pupil-teachers, the work is done by the master and mistress alone, or with the assistance of the elder children who act as monitors.

6. For some time lack of supply has been severely felt. One cause is the great demand for schoolmistresses in village schools, where the

means of support are limited, and one school only is kept open. Another, their early marriage, either to the master or a person unconnected with education. In either case their services are generally lost.

7. Favourable as to the efficiency and the purity of the appointments.

8. On the whole very inefficient.

9. (a) Favourable.

(b, c) The tendency of the education given here and its aim is to supply information of a general character.

10. There is in this neighbourhood very little feeling shown on the subject. Where exemption is allowed to the children of Dissenters in catechetical instruction and attendance upon religious worship, no objections are made to National schools, in which alone, of all Protestant schools, a distinct religious education is given. The special provisions have reference to the Church Catechism and attendance upon religious worship at the Established Church.

The Rev. THOMAS PRICE.

1. (a) There are in this district several very efficient public and private schools.

(b) I have no experience of endowed schools.

(c) Inspection decidedly improves the schools; it is in my opinion of great value.

2. (a) They are of very great value, and have done much good in this district.

(b) Industrial schools we have none.

(c) I am sorry we have no half-time system; but I have observed elsewhere that it has a beneficial tendency.

3. (1) In my opinion the normal schools have given us a greatly improved class of teachers. (3) As a body I think they are much attached to their work.

4. No case of the kind has come under my own observation.

5. I think that the system of the pupil-teachers has worked well with us, and I have not known their claims and those of the scholars clash. I do not think we could do well without pupil-teachers.

6. I have not observed any.

7. I have no experience on this point.

8. In this district we have several very efficient private school-masters and mistresses, who have had a very good education, and who have for years followed the profession of teachers.

9. (a) Good, upon the whole.

(b) Very fair.

(c) I think it is well adapted for this purpose.

10. In this district the religious element is not much insisted upon in our public schools; hence we find the children of Dissenters in many cases attending National Schools, but this would not be the case were the Church Catechism pressed upon their notice.

PENDARVES VIVIAN, Esq.

2. In this parish the evening school is, as a rule, badly attended, owing partly to the workpeople, after their day's work, being fatigued, and partly to Dissenting meetings and schools going on nearly nightly.

INTELLECTUAL RESULTS OF EDUCATION.

1. What is your experience as to the comparative value of educated and uneducated workmen and workwomen as such?
2. What is your experience as to the value which poor people who have received a good school education set upon it in after-life?
3. How far do they avail themselves of such means of keeping up or extending their acquirements as reading rooms, lectures, evening schools, and the like?
4. Has your experience enabled you to trace any connexion between the spread of popular education and the spread of a taste for music, singing, drawing, and other similar accomplishments amongst the poor?

Answers to the foregoing Questions.

JOSEPH MARRAT, Esq.

1. The comparative value between skilled and unskilled workmen is evident in the rate of wages as well as intellectual pursuits.
2. They are sensible of the advantages of a good school education, though they are careless about obtaining it for their children.
3. Very little. Reading-rooms have been established but, after the novelty was over, shut up—no one attending them. The same with the evening school.
4. The Welsh have a natural taste for singing, irrespective of education; the other accomplishments are not cultivated.

[In conclusion, I would impress upon the Education Commission to consider the propriety of publishing the names of the parties who give them information. Above ten years ago similar inquiries were made of and replies given to the Commissioners of Education by Mr. Moir Crane, of this place,* which reflected severely upon the moral and religious character of the inhabitants, of which he was a competent judge, having been many years manager of these works. Upon his observations being published in their Report it created the greatest anger and indignation, so much so that his personal safety was endangered. This unfortunate publication produced a coolness on the part of the Welsh population towards the English, of whom Mr. Crane was considered the representative, and which in some measure exists to the present time. The Commissioners are right in applying to other parties than clergymen and schoolmasters for information, but they should be cautious in not compromising them.]

GEO. T. CLARK, Esq.

1. How can there be two opinions! An ignorant workman is a mere brute, and can be and is led into all sorts of folly and mischief. An educated man knows that masters do not fix wages, and that the general result of destroying machinery or of "striking" is injurious to the men.
2. They value it most highly.
3. They do so avail themselves.

* Reports on Wales, 1847, (Committee of Council on Education,) p. 417.

4. It has not. I have been far too much engaged in securing a really sound popular education for my workmen to attempt to go further, as yet.

M. MOGGRIDGE, Esq.

1. The educated are worth more than the uneducated.
2. Can give no opinion.
3. To a small extent.
4. No.

SAMUEL HOLLAND, Esq.

1. Educated workmen are decidedly better both as workmen and as to steadiness in their habits, and more desirous of improving themselves.
2. They value it highly.
3. Wherever there are reading-rooms, or where lectures are given, the educated avail themselves of them, and are the best attendants.
4. Music and singing are much cultivated.

JOSHUA RICHARDSON, Esq., C.E.

1. As a civil engineer, I have been brought much in contact with "navvies" and colliers. Where of sober habits, educated men make the best workmen.
2. I believe it is highly prized by them.
3. Not to the extent that is desirable.
4. With the exception of music and singing—no.

The Rev. JOHN GRIFFITHS.

1. There can be no doubt of the superior value of educated workmen and workwomen.
2. They set upon it very great value, which may be witnessed in the anxiety of educated parents to secure suitable instruction for their children.
3. My experience is almost entirely confined to night schools, which have been most successfully established and carried on in this parish.
4. The connexion is gradually making itself apparent.

The Rev. THOMAS PRICE.

1. Education decidedly improves both the workman and workwoman, as such.

2. As a general rule, they greatly value it in after-life, and it is often highly prized.
 3. Only partially; not to the extent I could wish. Here, there is room for great improvement.
 4. Most decidedly; this is very certainly the case to a large extent.
-

APPENDIX C.

[Appendix C. comprises the answers received to the series of questions given below. These questions were drawn up with special reference to the condition of education as affected by the peculiar features, social or other, of Wales—with the view in fact of eliciting opinion on the Welsh phases of the Education question. They were, for the most part, circulated, accompanied by the explanatory note which precedes them, among those who were known to have taken an active part in the management of schools within the "Specimen District."]

SIR,

I HAVE the honour of forwarding to you the following series of questions, and shall feel obliged by your favouring me with replies to them, or as many of them as fall within the range of your observation, at your earliest convenience. If any statements, in addition to those implied in the questions subjoined, bearing on the moral and educational condition of Wales, suggest themselves to you, I shall be most happy to avail myself of your experience and observation, by your favouring me with such statements.

I have, &c.

JOHN JENKINS.

1. What is your experience as to the adequacy in the diffusion of education in Wales—
 - (a) Of voluntary efforts?
 - (b) Of legislative aid?
 2. What form should legislative aid assume—
 - (a) Whether grants in aid of voluntary contributions?
 - (b) Or a general rate?
 3. Is the aid given by Government in its present form adapted to the condition of Wales—
 - (a) As it respects the feelings of the religious community?
 - (b) The distribution of population and economic condition of the country?
 4. To what extent is the education of the Welsh people provided for—
 - (a) As it respects religious instruction?
 - (b) Secular instruction?
 5. Can you state any peculiar obstacles to the more general diffusion of popular education in Wales, and your opinion as to the means of removing them?
-

Answers to the foregoing Questions.

J. H. LLOYD, Esq., M.D., Llangefni, Anglesea.

1. Great voluntary efforts have been made. Legislative aid good; but hardly commensurate.
2. (a) The system of grants in aid have worked well, and would do better if more liberal.
(b) I doubt the policy of a *rate*.
3. I think it is so; generally the aid, both to National schools and British in the *same locality*, I think, meets all difficulties.
4. (a) Greatly improved in all respects, especially religious.
(b) Physical science more defective than in any country in Europe. No teaching of the kind, except occasionally at literary institutes, or none worth calling.

Dr. LLOYD appends to his replies the following note:—

SIR,

I AM sorry I have not been able to send you this return sooner. I should be glad to direct your special attention to the last answer. Our country is in a disgraceful state as to the means of teaching modern science. Machinery is greatly employed in agriculture and mines, and no means provided for teaching their principles, construction, or use to the young. Chemistry is an unknown science, except to a few amateurs and medical men. Natural history (botany) in particular, is not taught systematically, either in the schools or normal colleges. All this I think is radically wrong, and has been one of the causes why the progress and civilisation of the country have evidently been defective on certain points.

At the Anglesea Literary Institution (Amlwch), I had to complain the other day that they had only a single map. Could they not be supplied with the Ordnance maps coloured geologically? They would be most useful in that important mining district. They also want chemical and philosophical apparatus. There are many intelligent men who could make use of them. Indeed I find this locality, which has had its institute and lectures for 20 years, more forward than any I know in Wales.

I remain, &c.

J. H. LLOYD, M.D.

J. Jenkins, Esq.

The Rev. WM. ROBERTS, Blaina, Monmouthshire.

1. The amount of provision made for Wales is very inadequate to the wants. About two-thirds of our present schools in Wales receive Government aid.
2. Grants in aid of voluntary contributions, as is now being done, are most practicable, although I think the other plan the most desirable.
3. Yes. The "*voluntary zeal*" is dying away very fast in Wales, and schools are multiplied faster by far than we can supply them with teachers.
4. The Sunday schools provide ample means for religious instruction in Wales; but we want the number of our British schools doubled at least.
5. The last Minute providing for rural districts, by giving £25 to a probationer, or a scheduled man, has removed a great obstacle as far as

the certificate of competency is concerned, but we cannot avail ourselves of its advantages for want of qualified teachers.

[To these replies Mr. Roberts has kindly appended the following communication :—]

“Twelve new British Schools have been opened in 1859 in South Wales. Could we get the sufficient number of probationers or scheduled men we might put about 40 schools under inspection, that are now but poor, and in some instances, miserable apologies for schools. The great cry of the “anti-government aid party” is nearly over. I found by our consultation as agents of the British and Foreign School Society in London about three weeks ago (in May last) that the addition and increase of new day schools, and improvement of old ones, in connection with the British and Foreign School Society, are now progressing much more rapidly in South Wales than in any other part of this kingdom. We have added about 12 to 20 on an average, to those under inspection of Government, annually for the last two or three years, and our prospects for the future are very good.”

WM. ROBERTS.

The Rev. THOS. NICHOLAS, &c., Carmarthen.

1. That education is very inadequately diffused. This applies equally to efforts purely voluntary, and those under legislative encouragement.

2. Certainly not a general rate.

3. (a) Aid given by Government does not meet the approval of the great majority of the religious community. Hence it is but partially appropriated; and oft times when received is only received as a necessary element in educational competition.

(b) No; the poorest districts are least assisted.

4. (a) For religious instruction the Welsh would stand an advantageous comparison with any portion of the realm.

(b) No reliable statistics exist to bear out a definite estimate.

Chief obstacles are—

1. The general comparative poverty of the country.

2. Sectarian jealousies.

3. The absorption of available resources in the voluntary sustenance of religion.

4. Indifference to the value of education, and to parental obligation in the matter, an evil indeed which is itself but a natural effect of the deficiency complained of, and which can scarcely be said to be greater in Wales than in England.

5. The apathy in agricultural districts of the landed proprietors and chief residents.

6. Paucity of well-trained schoolmasters.

Some of these obstacles, with others not mentioned, are in process of removal. The material condition of the country is improving. The voluntary religious community is more capable of sustaining an educational machinery. A general interest in education promises ere long to be awakened. A judicious, very sparing, and strictly impartial use of aid by the legislature to voluntary effort, will be the most eligible form of interference. Eleemosynary education is an evil greatly to be deprecated. The nation has grown accustomed to self-support in religion,—let this already formed habit be only judiciously encouraged to develop itself in educational operations, and the cost to the legislature will in future years be very trifling.

A strictly non-sectarian Training College for masters for South Wales, appears to be the greatest present desideratum.

THOMAS NICHOLAS,
Prof. of Theology and Philosophy, Pres-
byterian College, Carmarthen.

The Rev. JOHN GRIFFITH, M.A., Rector of Merthyr, &c. &c.

1. Thirteen years as vicar of Aberdare, and some time Rural Dean and diocesan inspector of the largest and most populous deanery in Llandaff. See my remarks on General Question.

2. Grants in aid.

I do not think a general rate in Wales would answer.

3. In some respects it is, and in some respects it is not.

(a) Yes.

(b) No. See my remarks on the General Question.

4. (a) Very good, owing to the voluntary personal efforts of the Welsh in their various Sunday schools.

(b) Not good. See my remarks on the General Question.

5. This is a question that would require a long answer. I will endeavour to present my views on it as briefly as the nature of these queries will admit.

There are three peculiar obstacles to education in Wales, which do not obtain in England. First, the people, at least three fourths of them, using the Welsh language; secondly, the alienation of at least eight tenths of them from the Established Church of the country; thirdly, the remote and inaccessible and poor districts inhabited by the majority of the Welsh working people.

There is no obstacle to education greater than the upper class using one language and the people using another. It creates an apparent estrangement between the two classes; one side cannot communicate its sympathy to the other, and the other not comprehending it, is led to believe that no sympathy exists. This feeling increases when the two do not worship within the same building, or rather within the pale of the same church; and in case of any religious excitement, when the two churches clash, as they do unfortunately very frequently, this feeling is intensified. I know of nothing so injurious to Wales as the gentry having abandoned the language of their tenants and labourers. It recoils upon themselves and the people in every possible form, educationally, ecclesiastically, and legislatively. Justice, it is true, can be administered through interpreters, but very inadequately, and sad errors are often unintentionally committed in which parties suffer greatly; the feelings of the people are hurt; and it becomes a common belief,—one certainly settled in the minds of the country people, though as certainly nothing can be more erroneous,—that their English or Saxon compatriots have no great sympathy with them. Then the consequence of this upon the gentry is, that all Welsh-speaking people are thought to be bigoted and narrow-minded, intolerant, and ignorant; whereas the real state of the case is,—I have no hesitation in saying it,—that a better disposed and, as far the limits of the Welsh language will permit them, a more intelligent or a more liberal race of peasantry does not exist anywhere. It would be too much to enumerate here all the evil consequences that arise from this condition of things; suffice it, however, to say, that one side is disposed to depreciate whatever is Welsh, while the other looks with suspicion on whatever is English. It has always been a mystery to me, why the Welsh gentry do not teach

their children, or at any rate their heirs and successors, Welsh. I can only account for it in two ways:—Half a century ago it was thought ungentle to be acquainted with the language of the people. This feeling does not exist now, at any rate to no great extent. But there is another evil come in of late, and I know nothing more detrimental to the best interests of the country, and this is *the supposition that the Welsh language is dying away*, and therefore not needed. A greater error than this never was broached; for I have no hesitation in saying that *the Welsh language has been more spoken, more cultivated, and more pride taken in it by the Welsh people within the last 30 years than in any other period of its existence.* Out of the 1,100,000 in Wales and Monmouthshire, fully 800,000 know no other language; most assuredly they talk and worship in no other. This could be easily proved statistically by the numbers of Welsh newspapers and periodicals published in Wales, and the number of dissenting chapels where Welsh only is used; not to speak of the churches which are professedly Welsh, though it were to be wished that *more of the Welsh of the people* were sometimes heard in them. The *English-Welsh* preached in such churches at present, whether as to pronunciation or grammar, is just as much understood by the people as the Greek of an elegant modern Greek scholar would be intelligible to an ancient Greek blacksmith. Hence it is, that the churches so benefited—and there are a great number of them in Wales—are tenanted only by the squire and his family, and the weeding old women and old men who depend upon the squire's bounty. And yet this is the interest that would tell us, *the Welsh is dying out*; and as it is an interest that is very much heard of late, I feel it my duty to protest against it. The education of the Welsh can never advance if a spurious belief should prevail that *the Welsh is dying out*. So long as the language remains it is our duty to foster everything Welsh, not to look upon Welsh as a *bar to progress*, because there is an idea prevailing that the knowledge of it is only another name for ignorance and bigotry. That this feeling should prevail among a large and wealthy section of the clergy in the church is only what might be naturally expected. The people have left us, and as it is not found easy to win them back again, because clergy are admitted to preach who cannot preach but after an *English-Welsh* fashion, totally unintelligible to the people, it follows, as a matter of course, that that which is the great obstacle should be *supposed to be dying out*, or, at any rate, the *wish is great that it should die out*.

The gentry and clergy being of the established church, it is hardly necessary to point out, that whatever schools have been built in Wales, have been built by them on the National Education system, with a few exceptions here and there. Without meaning any offence whatever to the gentry, I may also add that the expense of building and keeping up these schools has fallen and does fall heavily on the clergy. I must also take this opportunity of saying, in reply to Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools, I. Bowstead, Esq., that, as a true picture of the manner in which these schools are conducted by the clergy, nothing can be more erroneous than the representation made to him when he issued his first report; on the whole, notwithstanding that report, it is impossible for anything to be more liberal than the way in which these schools are carried on. The catechism is rarely forced on a child in any school if the parents object.

But the clergy have done their utmost in building schools, and I believe their efforts have arrived at their culminating point, while there is a vast area of Wales, wherein myriads of children are brought up without any other education than that of the Sunday school, and

which can never be reached by the present system of the Committee of Council on Education. For this reason, Wales is too poor, many of the Welsh estates are too encumbered, to avail themselves of the present "rate in aid." Schools in such districts, therefore, can never be built.

As a remedy, therefore, I would suggest that special masters be set aside for the remote districts of Wales. Young men who have failed to pass as Queen's scholars at the close of their apprenticeship, or who have failed to gain admission at the various training colleges, and who have to wait six, and very often twelve months before they are admitted, would answer the purpose of my scheme, in the absence of others, to penetrate these dark districts. If more competent and experienced masters can be provided, so much the better; but I feel confident of the success of my scheme, as it is based on what was attempted and partially carried out in Wales a century ago.* I would make these young men itinerant masters, or else resident in their respective districts only during the winter months. It would not be necessary to raise school buildings, as there is in every, even in the remotest, district of Wales, a dissenting chapel. These could be had either for nothing, or for the merest trifle, to be used as a school during the day. The education in them I would make entirely secular, with the exception of one bible lesson each afternoon. The Committee to regulate them should be the clergyman of the parish and the dissenting ministers of the district. I would put down certain rules which should guide their superintendence. I would not leave the school without official superintendents, and I would not leave out the clergyman, as I know, from the experience of superintending large schools, what the efficacy of an officially appointed committee is.

Schools upon this principle might be carried out at a comparatively small expense. The Welsh, especially in these remote districts, are far more partial to education than their compatriots in large manufacturing and mining districts. They value it more, and give more for it.

Indifferently as they are conducted now, there is scarcely a district in Wales, however remote, that has not its "hedge school" for six weeks of the winter in some hovel or other. A very small grant, therefore, of the public money would render such schools, with a proper master appointed, in some measure adequate and efficient to the wants of the people. The towns will take care of themselves. I would not disturb the present state of things in them. It is true that children in towns are taken too young from school; but the facilities afforded by the Committee of Council to hold night schools are so admirable that it can be the fault of local school committees only if all under 20 years of age are not educated by the present system in towns. I would only ask for one thing to make it perfect, and that is, the relaxation of "the registering" system. There are as good masters in Wales who cannot get certificated or registered as there are of those who have one or the other. Practically, they are very often better, for they have none of the modern schoolmaster's epidemic vice,—conceit.

JOHN GRIFFITH, M.A.,
Rector of Merthyr Tydvil, and Rural
Dean of Llandaff.

DR. DAVIES, Ph. D. (late Principal of Frood Vale School), Carmarthen.

1. It is much improved during the last ten years.
- (a) Not sufficient without Government aid.

* Griffith Jones' Itinerant Schools.

(b) Legislative aid enables poor neighbourhoods to get masters and pay them permanently.

2. (a) Grants in aid of contributions. British schools are generally preferred to the National.

(b) The Welsh would not like a general rate.

3. (a) The Welsh wish for religious freedom in its widest extent. They dislike the trammels of creed.

(b) In the rural districts they could get decent masters for 40*l.* a year. Government aid 20*l.*, and contributions 20*l.*, would keep it up constantly.

4. The Welsh are much superior to the English in religious knowledge, but behind them in secular instruction.

5. If grants were given free from sectarian principles, only requiring the Bible, without note or comment, to be read in the schools, it would be much better than to have two sorts of schools; namely, National and British.

The Rev. MICHAEL D. JONES, Independent College, Bala.

1. The answer I can give to this question is more the result of a general impression made upon my mind by living and travelling in Wales, than any conclusion I have arrived at by any statistical calculation. I may say in reply, that within the last fifteen years schools have greatly multiplied in Wales, secular education being now as common as it formerly was rare. There is, however, great room for improvements, chiefly in rural districts and in all the places that have ceased to be Welsh by the adoption of the English language to the exclusion of the native idiom, as the people everywhere seem to become debased by losing their nationality. The English parts of Wales are notoriously backward. All along the borders, in Radnorshire, and in the English parts of Pembrokeshire there is but little intelligence, religion, or morality, while all the other parts of Wales are making rapid improvements. There seem to have been greater efforts made by the means of English schools to abolish the Welsh language wherever it is used than to educate those parts of Wales where the English is already spoken.

(a) The most efficient schools seem to be those where the people have to pay themselves for the education of their children. A case has come under my own observation where a school is free, the scholars having to pay $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per week for their books. This free school is in connexion with a British school, and the master complains continually of the non-attendance of the free-school children, while those that pay for their education seem to value it, and their attendance is regular. In those neighbourhoods where education is sufficiently valued very little Government aid is required, in some none at all; and the schools are rendered more efficient by having a little aid in other neighbourhoods, in consequence of their being enabled, by means of legislative aid, to employ a more efficient teacher, and also to employ pupil-teachers. Without this aid the Bala British School could not be so efficient as it is at present. As a rule, it seems best to let the people do all they can themselves, legislative aid or any other assistance being good only when their own efforts are put forth, in order to make their endeavours more efficient. In the establishment of a training school for teachers voluntary efforts have proved insufficient in South Wales, and the attempt has proved a failure. In North Wales voluntary efforts in connexion with Government aid seem to prosper in the establishment of such an institution at Bangor. Our very best schools are those that are purely voluntary, such as the Frood Vale school, the

school of Mr. E. Davies, M.A., Swansea, the schools of Messrs. Evans, M.A., Beaumaris; Jenkins, Holt; Evans, Carmarthen, &c., which, however, are private institutions, and not public schools; all of which are in a flourishing state, and their number increasing.

(b) The legislative aid given to British schools may with advantage be increased, while the education of Wales would not be very materially injured if the National schools were closed. The body of the people in Wales are Dissenters, and in the British schools children are allowed to attend their own places of worship, and are not taught the religious creed of any particular sect. The National schools, on the contrary, are very inefficient, as they are regarded with religious jealousy, being instruments in the hands of the clergy of the Established Church to propagate the interests of the Church of England, to which the aristocracy alone belong. Whatever the rules of the National schools require, in operation they become a portion of that system of sectarian corruption which the squirearchy and clergy too often employ to bribe the people into the church. The inference is, that there is more than necessary of National schools, as they are not fitted for a country where the people are dissenters, or they are not properly worked; but British schools may be multiplied with advantage. Multiplying the Catholic schools would not suit the Protestants of France, and increasing the National schools does not suit the Dissenters of Wales.

2. For the reasons above given, grants in aid of voluntary contributions will be more salutary than a general rate. In course of time, perhaps, the people will so appreciate education, as they do religion, that they will find the means of procuring an adequate supply of it, and in some places, perhaps, that endowments will be bequeathed to assist poor neighbourhoods. It is better, however, that the educational system of Wales should be a natural growth, and not a forced one by unnecessary legislation.

3. (a) The National schools, as already mentioned, are only instruments, as at present worked, to form the rising generation to the Church of England. The religious instruction given in connexion with them the parents endeavour to thwart, and in most instances parents refuse the only secular instruction which their children can get, owing to its being connected with religious instruction the parents repudiate. The British schools, on the contrary, are free from this objection, and teach no religious creed objected to by the parents.

(b) The aid given suits populous districts better than thinly inhabited ones. A poor district, with a scattered and small population, of which there are so many in Wales, can never hope to have a schoolmaster or a schoolhouse that comes up with the standard given by Government. The plan of schoolhouses is altogether too expensive. At Llandervel, near Bala, the people found it *cheaper and better* for them to build a schoolhouse without the aid of Government than by receiving it on the conditions offered. The schoolhouse they built is a convenient and commodious one, and quite good enough for the neighbourhood. Timber less expensive than Baltic surely will do for schoolhouses, when gentlemen, for their parlours, can have hardly anything better.

4. (a) The religious instruction of the Welsh people is good and general. The strength of the various denominations can be procured from the following sources:—The Independents, Rev. Hugh Pugh Mestyn, Flintshire, or the Rev. Thos. Rees, Beaufort, Kendle, Monmouthshire (the former has a Welsh almanack, published annually, with denominational statistics in it, and the latter has written a pamphlet latterly on the subject); the Calvinistic Methodists, the Rev.

Roger Edwards, editor of the "Drysorva," Mold, Flintshire; the Baptist, the Rev. John Pritchard, Baptist minister, Llangollen, Denbighshire. The Dissenters in Wales have built about two thousand chapels, and every neighbourhood has abundance of religious advantages. The Sunday school is a powerful society to give the Welsh religious instruction, which is attended by young and old. It is, in Wales, a place for adults to expound the Scriptures as well as for the young to learn reading.

(b) The secular instruction of the Welsh is not so good nor so general, but greatly improving, and extending daily. Many schools in rural districts are extinct, where a little aid would have kept them alive. It ought to be known that a very efficient schoolmaster may be procured for the country for 40*l.* salary, which would be quite equal to 60*l.* or 70*l.* in a town, and the latter sums in many a Welsh town would be quite equal to 100*l.* in a large English town. Many a neighbourhood where the day school is now extinct could have collected some 20*l.* or 25*l.*; and could they have had aid to the amount of 15*l.* or 20*l.* in addition, an efficient day school would have been there still.

5. The National schools everywhere ought to be remodelled to suit Wales as a country where the people do not belong to the Established Church. These schools are under the control of the clergy, and used as means to force their religion upon the people.

Some means ought to be employed to get the landlords to sell land in the most convenient places to build schoolrooms. Many of the landocracy oppose the education of the people, if that be not conformable to their own notions. It is a rare thing to see a landlord or a proprietor of works in Wales assisting in the education of the people without using means, in connexion with these efforts, to tyrannize over the people's consciences.

Aid ought to be given to schoolmasters in rural districts to make a salary of 40*l.* a year.

Aid ought to be given to build schoolhouses inferior to those required at present by Government.

MICHAEL D. JONES.

Bala, June 10th, 1859.

EDWARD COOPER, Esq., a Manager of the British School, Llangollen.

1. (a) Insufficient.
2. (a.) Grants in aid of voluntary efforts suitable.
(b) Not desirable.
3. (a) Generally acceptable.

The Rev. THOS. DAVIES, Rector of Trawsfynydd, &c.

1. (a) In answering this question, I deem it most prudent to confine myself to the deanery in which I have the honour to be the Diocesan Inspector of Schools; viz., that of Ardudwy, in the county of Merioneth.

In this deanery there are eight schools in connexion with the Church of England under my inspection, and probably the following tabular form, returned to me by the managers last year, would give a fairer insight of what is being done than could be explained in any other way, as it embraces the attendance of week-day and Sunday,—the amount of subscriptions as well as the children's pence. But from this it would not be safe to infer that education in other parts of Wales is in the same condition, as some of the districts are very mountainous, the population scattered, and few only of the landed proprietors resident.

Name of School.	Attendance.		Number of Masters.	Pupil Teachers.	Teacher's House.	Payment of Children.	Subscription.	Aid from Government.	Endowment.	1851 Census.
	Week Day.	Sunday.								
Ffestiniog, N. - -	65	80	One	Two	Yes	£ 15	£ 31	Yes	£ s. None	3,460
Harlech, parish of Llandanwg.	40	35	One	None	No	10	3	No	15 0	760
Llanfihangel - -	37	30	One	None	Yes	15	5	No	1 5	1,587
Llanbedr - -	60	60	One	None	Yes	15	—	No	40 0	360
Llanenddwyn - -	36	70	One	None	Yes	10	4	No	8 0	388
Barmouth, parish of Llanaber.	85	110	One	One	No	20	40	Yes	3 0	1,670
Trawsfynydd - -	88	105	One	Two and one paid monitor.	No	25	24	Yes	3 0	1,498
Llanfrothen - -		40	One	One	Yes	30	7	Yes	None	802

There are besides three-day schools in this deanery in connexion with the Church of England, not visited by me, entirely supported by Mrs. Oakeley, a most charitable lady, residing at Tanybwllch, in the neighbourhood of Festiniog slate quarries. These are at Llwynygell, Maentwrog, and Llandecwyn, with an average attendance, including infants in the first class, from information received, of 140, 70, and 45. The Sunday schools in these places are equally well attended.

There are also, I believe, four British and Foreign schools,—one at Blanaŷ Festiniog, one at the village of Festiniog, one at Dyffryn, in the parish of Llanenddwyn, and the other at Barmouth, in the parish of Llanaber. Of these, from personal knowledge, I cannot speak, but reports say they are mostly full, and creditably conducted.

It will be observed, that of the eight schools mentioned by me in the tabular form, only four receive aid from Government; namely, Festiniog, Barmouth, Trawsfynydd, and Llanfrothen,—the last in its infancy, and therefore can scarcely be classed with the first three; but a casual observer, and one not interested in schools, and knowing nothing of their mechanism, cannot at once help seeing the marvellous difference there is in the management of these and the others named, not under the supervision of Her Majesty's Inspector.

Voluntary efforts are doubtless highly necessary, and should in every way possible be encouraged, but without legislative aid would comparatively avail little.

(b) The present aid of the legislature is most beneficial, by the allowance granted to certificated masters, and more especially by the staff of pupil-teachers it supports. This plan is infinitely superior to the old method of unpaid monitors, both as to the order and regularity of the school, as well as the speedy instruction of the children. No school of the average attendance of from 80 to 90 children can be properly worked without two pupil-teachers.

2. (a) The present system of grants has, in my opinion, fully answered its intention, and is now producing a tolerably rich harvest. It has called forth voluntary efforts, which otherwise would have been dormant or withheld. It is also a great inducement to the master to be zealous and active in increasing the number of scholars, as by so doing he in most cases increases his own income. And, as regards the education of the children of those receiving parochial relief, the relieving officer of the district pays quarterly for their schooling out of the poor rates, and the account is passed, as any other relief by the poor-law auditor.

By taking these, and others that might be named, into consideration, I find no difficulty in coming to the conclusion that grants in aid of voluntary contributions are preferable to a general rate.

3. (a) None can cavil, or find fault. If those who have dissented from the Established Church are dis-satisfied with the instruction received in the national school, they have only to convince the Government of the necessity of another more in harmony with their religious views. The Government, I believe, are always willing to meet their wishes, provided they contribute the sum required. Nothing can be fairer, and I have never heard any complaints. It certainly is a great misfortune to thinly populated districts, as they cannot so easily obtain legislative aid; but it also is a great mistake to fancy that gross ignorance prevails even in these; for most young persons are taught to read their Bibles in the Sunday schools, so common in private houses, if there be no more convenient places, and many are taught to write in night schools, kept in the same way.

4. (a) None of Her Majesty's subjects, one would suppose, are better

provided with religious instruction than the Welsh. Besides the parish church, in almost every village of from 300 to 500 inhabitants there are mostly three and sometimes four chapels belonging to as many denominations, who have services and schools in them on Sundays, and frequently preaching on week days. It is very questionable whether the pure doctrine of Christianity is inculcated in all these. One hears very different things occasionally ; but few absent themselves unless from sickness, or other unavoidable cause, from some places of worship on a Sunday. I am speaking more particularly of hamlets and agricultural districts ; I cannot of late speak with such certainty of towns. And as to

(b) "Secular instruction," the best illustration, probably, that can be given would be by mentioning what is taking place in this parish, and, from personal knowledge, similar things, more or less, in the adjacent ones. Occasionally here, twice or thrice in the year,—and it should be borne in mind that this is one of the most out of the way and mountainous parishes in Wales,—subjects to write upon, of course in the Welsh language, are fixed for competition, and small prizes given to those adjudicated the best. Sometimes I review these. About three months ago eight competitors sent to me their compositions. The subject was, "Proper behaviour in Public Places." Some of these were very lengthy, the writing good, spelling and grammar perfect, and the instructions for polite conduct would not disgrace the pen of a Chesterfield. There were other subjects, and many competitors, and the evening the prizes were distributed to the successful candidates there could not be less than 300 persons present to listen to the productions being read.

On Monday next, Whitmonday, an adjudication is to be made on four different subjects :—The Responsibility of Parents ; *a Novel !! Capt. Morgan the hero !* ; History of Joseph ; and Poetry ; and no less than *fifty* candidates.

These simple facts tell the condition of "secular instruction" in Wales better than I can describe, and from them I feel persuaded you will gain more real information than from any opinion of my own.

The Rev. D. LLOYD, LL.D., Presbyterian College, Carmarthen.

1. (a) Are inefficient.
- (b) Both must be combined.
2. (a) Yes.
- (b) No.
3. (a) All denominations are become rapidly convinced of the necessity of Government aid.
4. (a) Principally provided by Sunday schools, &c.
- (b) Inefficient.
5. The great indifference of the parents ; being utterly uneducated themselves, they are insensible to the importance of education.

The Rev. JOHN MATTHEWS, Neath.

1. (a) Inadequate. Having the will, but not the means.
- (b) Good, but a great number of the very poor are out of its reach at present.
2. Grants in aid of voluntary contributions. Not a general rate on any account, if money could otherwise be raised

3. There is a great improvement of late in favour of Government aid in Wales, from there being no form of creed enforced upon the people. It could be better had there been more honesty and disinterestedness on the part of those who apply for such aid.

4. (a) Extensively provided for as regards the pulpit, but the requirements of the young, in our Sabbath schools, should be better attended to.

(b) Very good; could the parents and guardians of children afford to keep them at school for a specified time, instead of being compelled, for their own support, to seek employment.

5. (1.) Poverty, the want of clothing, and the means of paying for the school of several children in the same family. (2.) Keep night schools, and remunerate voluntary teachers for their services, without expecting them to produce certificates of scholarship on that account. The scholars to procure books, &c.

J. C. SYMONS, Esq.

1. (a) Very great, but often desultory and spasmodic, almost always sectarian.

(b) This has done vast good.

2. (a) In aid of voluntary contributions, but apportioned in the ratio of the poverty of places, and not merely of amount of subscriptions, which is rather a sign of their wealth.

(b) Certainly not.

3. (a) Yes; as much so as it is possible to be; any change of system would revive subdued excitement and reawaken slumbering feuds. *Ne quieta movere.*

(b) Not sufficiently, but time and good inspection, and greater intelligence, I think, will set this right ere long.

4. (a) Very scantily, except in Sabbath schools.

(b) Still very deficient, but much improved and improving.

5. The language is still an obstacle, but railways and the spread of commercial activities will remedy this yearly more and more. The real remedy for deficient education is to be found in good schools thoroughly adapting their teaching to the daily labour wants of life. Offer a good article, and the demand will be commensurate with its practical usefulness.

The following communications, embodying replies to the above questions were also received:—

The Rev. J. PHILLIPS, Inspector of British Schools, North Wales.

In North Wales education is in a progressive condition.

The people are, to a degree at least, alive to its importance, and generally anxious to have good and efficient schools for their children.

1. But the voluntary efforts, exercised on behalf of education, have not hitherto been adequate to the necessities of the country; as there are many localities left without any schools at all, and many more without schools adapted to the requirements of the people.

2. Government aid to erect school buildings, and to support schools annually, is dealt out with care, but on the whole liberally; and I entertain the opinion that the system of grants, in aid of voluntary contributions, is likely to work better than a general rate.

3. I am not aware that there is any repugnancy in the feelings of the religious community against Government assistance, when it is not

given to schools in which catechisms and formularies, belonging to some particular section of Christians are taught.

But if Government aid were to be granted with more readiness and liberality to rural and mountainous districts, it would without doubt answer a good purpose.

4. Owing to the number and efficiency of Sabbath schools in Wales religious instruction is extensively diffused, which is not the case with secular education.

5. To the diffusion of popular education throughout Wales the great drawback hitherto has been the want of school buildings, and of competent teachers, in possession of certificates, so as to obtain Government assistance. Wherever we are successful in securing these, the schools, almost without exception, are in a healthy condition.

The Rev. DANIEL DAVIES, Baptist Minister, Cardigan.

I have so repeatedly expressed my sentiments on the points to which your questions refer, that I have nothing new to offer; and to report in detail the same views would answer no useful purpose. It may, however, be worth while to say, generally, that while I remain as deeply convinced as ever of the necessity of Government aid for the spread of education, I am getting more and more dissatisfied with the manner in which it is given. I am decidedly of opinion that nothing but a local rate, with which Government shall have nothing to do but empowering it to be levied, will meet the case. The system of centralization, which it is the tendency of the present mode to foster, is not only dangerous to civil and religious liberty, but tends to make the schoolmasters independent of the committees, &c.; to make them depend on the Government and its agents, which cannot be expected to know the necessities of the locality, nor feel the same interest as the ratepayers who should be contributing directly towards the maintenance of the school. As the present system, in my opinion, is not worth mending, I shall not trouble you with any suggestions for its improvement. Although it might be buttressed for a time, I think it must come down and give room to another edifice more in accordance with the taste and necessities of the country. Of course I take it for granted that the foundation stone in the new edifice must be the *entire separation* of secular from religious education; the latter to be entrusted to the religious communities, and the former only to be a burden on the local rate, and to be entirely under the control of ratepayers. I should have no objection to inspectors, &c., provided they were made as independent as the judges of the land, and could not possibly be converted into Government tools. As long as we have a religious establishment, and a Government disposed to make religion subservient to its political interest, I see no method to do away with abuses but the one I have named. In the present state of education, and the urgent necessity of its being extended, I should think it advisable to allow the present system, with all its defects, to remain until we can get a better. I have always found it best not to attempt to improve a system radically wrong, but let its defects continue until they become so glaring as to demand a change of system.

APPENDIX D.

WELSH LANGUAGE.

TABLE showing the TOTAL NUMBER of SCHOLARS in the under-mentioned SCHOOLS respectively under and above 10 years of Age, and the Number under each Head "KNOWING ENGLISH WELL, IMPERFECTLY, and KNOWING WELSH ONLY."

SCHOOLS.	Children under 10 years of age.				Children above 10 years of age.			
	Number of Scholars.	Know English well.	Imperfectly.	Welsh only.	Number of Scholars.	Know English well.	Imperfectly.	Welsh only.
Beddgelert (British)	71	9	62	—	30	16	—	14
Glyndyfrdwy	44	4	30	22	12	10	2	0
Bettws	—	0	15	25	—	1	11	2
Llwynygell	60	10	38	2	44	25	12	7
*Dolgelley (National)	120	6	50	64	40	20	10	10
*Llangollen (British) Girls	88	26	36	22	35	0	24	11
* Ditto Boys	—	20	43	30	—	20	18	1
*Llangollen (National)	—	10	23	59	—	21	36	18
*Bala Free School	5	3	2	0	34	20	14	0
Festiniog Slate Quarries (British)	90	Few	30	54	77	40	26	11
*Bala (British)	106	15	49	42	66	45	21	—
*Dolgelley (British)	102	7	59	36	91	21	70	0
Totals	686	110	437	356	429	239	244	74
SOUTH WALES.								
Yniseddwyn Ironworks	46	15	20	11	29	9	16	4
Margam Copperworks	98	32	58	8	52	34	15	3
Margam Tinworks	25	16	9	—	39	31	8	0
Ystadganlais (National)	—	0	17	37	—	13	14	0
Abercrave	69	20	16	33	24	14	5	5
Ystalyfera (Boys)	—	28	40	14	—	32	9	0
Totals	238	111	160	103	144	133	67	12

* Denotes schools in towns.

(TIME OCCUPIED BY WELSH CHILDREN IN ACQUIRING ENGLISH.)

Appended to the series of questions, the replies to which are embodied in the above table, was a note soliciting the schoolmasters to furnish me with "their estimate of the average time it takes the children knowing Welsh only, to acquire a sufficient knowledge of English to do the school work in English, or in other words, without the aid of Welsh interpretation." To this note I received the following replies, which are valuable as showing the amount of obstacle which the Welsh language presents to the spread of education in Wales:—

Mr. Ellis Roberts, Llwynyggell. — "Four or five years would not be too much for that purpose." Mr. Williams, Dolgelley, National.— "Children are not admitted into my school under seven years of age. I find they are not able to understand English sufficiently so as to go on with the schoolwork without interpretation until about ten years of age, and it will take them additional two years before they can understand English tolerably." Mr. Jas. Jones, Bala.—"I believe that translation cannot wholly be dispensed with even among the most advanced of our children; and that as the lessons increase in difficulty, a corresponding aid should and must be rendered." Mr. Hughes, Ffestiniog, Quarries School.—"About three or four years."—Mr. W. Griffiths, Bala British School.—"We do not dispense with translation at all in some form or another. The translation which is intended to enable them to understand may perhaps be dispensed with in two years." Mr. J. Roberts, Dolgelley, British.—"The average time will be about three or four years." Mr. G. Thomas, Beddgelert.—"A child entering at seven, from three to five years of regular attendance."—Mr. R. Lloyd, Ystalyfera.—"Three years." Mr. G. Griffiths, Margam Copper Works.—"After the first year they go on rapidly in English."

APPENDIX E.

[Subjects of a miscellaneous character bearing on topics adverted to in the Report are given under this head.]

PUBLIC SCHOOLS:—OCCUPATION, &c. OF PARENTS.

The following RETURNS were made to INQUIRIES into the OCCUPATIONS of the PARENTS of SCHOLARS in PUBLIC SCHOOLS:—

SCHOOLS.	Total No. of Children in Schools.	Children of Farmers.	Children of Shopkeepers.	Children of Mechanics.	Children of Labourers, agricultural or otherwise.
Llandrillo "Union" - - -	78	22	3	19	34
Beddgelert (British) - - -	101	26	6	22	47
Glyndyfrdwy - - - - -	56	16	3	11	26
Bettws - - - - -	54	31	2	—	21
Llwynyggell - - - - -	94	0	3	18	73
*Dolgelley (National) - - -	160	9	9	50	92
*Llangollen, British (Girls) - -	123	16	14	0	91
* Do. do. (Boys) - - - - -	140	14	20	53	52
*Llangollen (National) - - -	167	11	12	74	70
*Bala (Free School) - - - - -	39	6 of Gentlemen.	3	8	22
Ffestiniog Slate Quarries (British)	167	4	27	14	122
*Bala (British) - - - - -	172	28	36	47	61
*Dolgelley (British) - - - - -	193	30	46	35	82
TOTALS - - - - -	1,544	213	184	351	793

* Denotes Town Schools.

SCHOOLS.	Total No. of Children in Schools.	Children of Farmers.	Children of Shopkeepers.	Children of Mechanics.	Children of Labourers, agricultural or otherwise.
Ystalyfera Works (Boys) -	123	6	7	78	32
Ynisedwyn Iron Works -	75			2	73
Margam Copper Works (Boys) -	150	5	3	56	86
Do. Tin Works -	64	0	6	57	1
Ystradgunlais (National) -	81	3	0	18	60
Abercrave (National) -	93	4	13	12	64
TOTALS -	586	18	29	223	316

MODE of PAYMENT (Report, pp. 524-527) in Works and Colliery Schools.

The following are the regulations of workmen's payments to the school fund of a Colliery in South Wales:—

1. Every adult workman pays 4*d.* per month.
2. All boys working under ground earning from 6*s.* to 8*s.* a week pay 2*d.* a month.
3. All boys above ground earning 1*s.* 6*d.* a day, 4*d.* a month. Several boys, door keepers, and others pay nothing.

ESTIMATE of annual Receipts and Expenditure, assuming that 300 Men and 100 Boys are employed in the Works.

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
	£ s. d.		£ s. d.
300 men, &c., at 4 <i>d.</i> per month -	75 16 8	*Salary, master -	46 16 0
100 boys, 2 <i>d.</i> a month -	6 10 0	*Do. to sewing mistress -	6 0 0
			52 16 0
		Books, 5 <i>l.</i> ; repairs, 2 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i> ; rent, 5 <i>l.</i> -	12 10 0
		Extras, and cost of collection -	5 0 0
			70 6 0
		Balance receipts -	12 0 8
	82 6 8		82 6 8

* The salaries are taken from an actual, and the estimated items on the most extended scale, probably double the outlay.

INCOME and Expenditure for One Year of an Iron Works School in South Wales, employing from 2,000 to 2,100 Men, Girls, and Boys. Total under Education, 96 Boys, 117 Girls, 143 Infants.

RECEIPTS.			EXPENDITURE.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
School pence for the year	-	3 2 8	Salary of teachers	-	112 4 8
Payments of workmen to school fund	-	297 7 6	Do, assistants	-	27 4 6
			Books and apparatus	-	10 15 9
			Fuel and lights	-	10 0 0
			Rent	-	29 5 0
			* Other expenses (no particulars)	-	30 4 0
					<u>219 13 11</u>
			Balance of receipt	-	80 16 3
					<u>300 10 2</u>
		<u>300 10 2</u>			<u>300 10 2</u>

* The works proprietors contribute to two other schools in the neighbourhood, but the amount of their contributions I could not ascertain, nor, indeed, whether they were not included in the item "other expenses."

LONDON

Printed by GEORGE E. EYRE and WILLIAM SPOTTISWOODE,
Printers to the Queen's most Excellent Majesty.
For Her Majesty's Stationery Office.